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1919





A NEW
GRADED METHOD
IN
ENGLISH GRAMMAR
LETTER WRITING AND COMPOSITION

WITH PRACTICAL APPLICATION OF RULES

BY
JOHN S. COLLINS and M. D. MUGAN.

FIFTH EDITION

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TO THE INSTRUCTOR

Every mistake in language is a violation of a Rule of Grammar.

Train the students in the detection and correction of errors by the application of the Rules.

There are only 14 practical Rules in English Grammar. The necessary theoretical preparation, combined with an exhaustive training in the practical application of the Rules, should be commenced in the fifth and finished in the sixth grades since the great majority of pupils quit school early in the seventh grade.

JOHN S. COLLINS

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That Grammar which does not teach language by the application of Rules, within the limit of one year and, at the same time, make the work delightfully interesting to the pupils is practically worthless.—Webster.

For the practical application of the Rules see pages 17, 23, 26, 29, 33, 34, 36, 41, 41, 51, 59, 68, 69, 71, 76, 86, 93, etc.

PREFACE to Fifth Edition.

1. The authors of this work built it up on the fundamental principle that grammar is designed, primarily, as a means and method of teaching language.
2. The authors of this work claim that grammar should aim directly at teaching language—not definitions, explanations, observations and modifications, which the child can neither understand nor appreciate.
3. The authors of this work prepared every part of it in the school rooms, and every line of it was used for many years, by many teachers under their supervision before the first line was printed.
4. The authors of this work appreciate the fact that the great majority of school children are compelled to quit school before reaching the seventh grade, and for this reason have brought this work within the capacity of children in the fifth and sixth grade.
5. The authors of this work appreciate the fact that every mistake in language is a violation of a rule of grammar, consequently their method is designed to train the children in the detection and correction of mistakes by the application of the rules of grammar.
6. The authors of this work claim that it is contrary to sound educational principles to require school children to spend two or three years on the theory of grammar before developing the practical side of the work by the application of the rules.
7. The so called Language Lessons with which the country has been flooded for many years under various names should be classed as 'delusions' since they produce no lasting results commensurate with the time wasted on them.

TO THE INSTRUCTOR.

As preparation for the recitation, assign six sentences to be analyzed by diagram on slates or paper. As the first step at the recitation, have the prepared work transferred from slates to blackboard by the pupils for convenient use. During the recitation, train the pupils into fluency and rapidity in the oral analysis. With the analysis of the sentence in the form of a diagram on the board before the class, ask every possible question about every word in it. Be prompt and generous in assisting the pupils to answer questions during the first few weeks.

The practical application of the laws of language will be found on pages 17, 21, 23, 25, 27, 29, 32, 33, 34, 36, and numerous others.

ETYMOLOGY AND SYNTAX

COMBINED.

A **Sentence** is a complete thought expressed in words. It is an assemblage of words making complete sense.

The **Subject** of a sentence is the actor. It is that of which something is affirmed (said). It is generally a name—a noun.

The **Predicate** of a sentence is that which is affirmed of the subject. It is generally an action-word—a verb.

1. SUBJECT AND PREDICATE.

Analyze the following sentences, using this as a model:

Birds	sing.
-------	-------

"Birds sing" is a sentence. **Birds** is the subject; it is that of which something is affirmed; **sing** is the predicate; it is that which is affirmed of the subject.

1. Trees grow. 2. Snow melts. 3. Men work. 4. Fire burns.
5. Wind blows. 6. Lions roar. 7. Flowers bloom. 8. Walter writes.
9. Horses run. 10. Jennie sews. 11. Pupils study.
12. Boys play. 13. Fishes swim. 14. Dogs bark. 15. Bees sting.

Capitals.—*The first word of every sentence should begin with a capital.*

2. OBJECTS WITH TRANSITIVE VERBS.

Verbs are { 1. **Transitive**, requiring an *object*.
 2. **Intransitive**, requiring *no object*.
 3. ———. See page 19. ———

A **Verb** is a word which expresses being, action, or state; as, I *am*; Henry *walks*.

A **Transitive Verb** requires an object to complete its meaning.

An **Intransitive Verb** does *not* require an object to complete its meaning.

Remark.—All the verbs in the preceding exercise are intransitive verbs; those in the following exercise are all transitive verbs.

Analyze the following sentences **repeatedly**, using this as a model:

“Columbus discovered America.”

Columbus	discovered	America.
----------	------------	----------

Subject	Predicate	Object
---------	-----------	--------

Name	Action-word	Name
------	-------------	------

Noun	Verb	Noun
------	------	------

“Columbus discovered America” is a sentence. **Columbus** is the subject; **discovered** is the predicate; **America** is the object of the transitive verb **discovered**.

1. Merchants sell goods. 2. George studied history. 3. Birds build nests. 4. Farmers sow grain. 5. Cats catch mice. 6. Blacksmiths shoe horses. 7. Fire burns coal. 8. Children like stories. 9. Men build houses. 10. James cuts wood. 11. Brother studies law.

Parts of Speech.—Words are arranged in classes according to their use in sentences, and these classes are called the parts of speech.

The parts of speech are: Noun, Pronoun, Adjective, Verb, Adverb, Preposition, Conjunction, Interjection.

A **Noun** is a name; as, *bird, Mary, light, darkness.*

A **Proper Noun** is the name of some particular person, place or thing. All other nouns are called **Common Nouns**.

Nouns are { Proper; *Boston, England, George, Saturday.*
Common; *city, country, boy, day.*

Capitals.—*All proper nouns should begin with capitals.*

Suggestion.—From a careful examination of the diagrams on the opposite page we learn that the **subject** of a sentence is a **name**, and the name is a **noun**; the **predicate** is an action-word, and that is a **verb**; the **object** is a name—a **noun**.

A **Common Noun** is a name which belongs to all the things in a class of objects, and is applied to each individual of the class, when it is spoken of.

To the Teacher.—*It is important that strict attention be paid to the method of teaching suggested in the Appendix. The work should be taken, invariably, in the order in which it is here arranged.*

Copulative Verbs.—*Am, was, is, are, were, been,* are different forms of one copulative verb. The noun or pronoun following any one of these forms is in the nominative—not the objective case. It should have the nominative—not the objective form.

3. ADJECTIVES.

Adjectives answer the questions: { Which? What?
How many?
What kind?

An **Adjective** is a word that describes or points out a noun; as, *good* boy, *this* book, *five* oranges, the *seventh* day.

A **Descriptive Adjective** is one that describes or qualifies the meaning of the noun with which it is used.

Examples.—*Large, small, hard, soft, old, young, beautiful, strong, nice, wealthy, good, happy.*

A **Definitive Adjective** limits or defines the application of a noun, without expressing any of its qualities.

Examples.—*This, that, these, those, an, the, fifth, last, both, former, same, yonder, every, any, all, seven, few, much, certain, fourfold.*

Analyze the following sentences repeatedly, using this as a model:

“That wealthy merchant built a fine house.”

merchant		built	house.	
That	wealthy		a	fine

“That wealthy merchant built a fine house” is a sentence. **Merchant** is the subject; **built** is the predicate; **house** is the object. The subject, **merchant**, is modified by **that**, a definitive adjective, and **wealthy**, a descriptive adjective. **House** is modified by **a**, a definitive adjective, and by **fine**, a descriptive adjective.

1. This beautiful picture pleases the artist. 2. An old fox caught the young duck. 3. Brave men protected the ancient city. 4. One, small, dark cloud hides the new moon. 5. Blooming roses decorate his antique portico. 6. Brilliant rays of solar light pierce the heavy, broken clouds.

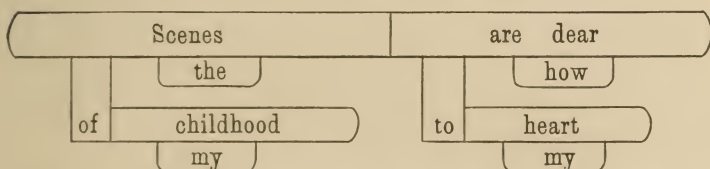
STEPPING STONES

METHOD OF INVESTIGATION.

The reasoning process which we use while studying, drawing conclusions and writing the analysis of a sentence in the form of a diagram, either on the board during the recitation or on slates while preparing the lessons, is identical with that which we use in solving mathematical problems and requires quite as much care and attention.

The formulated method of asking questions which we here present, when used with care, will aid very much in the work. The questions are designed to show clearly the use and force of each and every word in the sentence.

How dear to my heart are the scenes of my childhood,
 When fond recollection presents them to view!
 The orchard, the meadow, the deep tangled wild wood,
 And every loved spot that my infancy knew!



“How dear to my heart are the scenes of my childhood” is a sentence, exclamatory, simple. Name the three words that make the complete statement. *Scenes are dear.* About what is something said, what is the subject? *Scenes.* What scenes? *Of childhood.* What childhood? *My childhood,* What is said about scenes, what is the predicate? *Are dear* Are dear in what way? *Are dear to heart.* What heart? *My heart.*

Can you now analyze the sentences in this First Part rapidly and correctly?
 If so, procure the Second Part.

4. CONJUNCTIONS.

The **Conjunction** is that part of speech which is used for the purpose of joining together words and sentences.

Explanation.—A sentence may have two or more subjects connected by a conjunction, or two or more objects connected by the same part of speech; as, Edward *and* Henry study history. Alice studies geography *and* history. (See page 21.)

Remark.—The conjunction, **and**, is the only one here introduced, and its use is limited to such construction as the ones presented in the paragraph above.

Arthur	shot	fox	and	duck	
		an	old	a	wild

"Arthur shot an old fox and a wild duck" is a sentence; declarative; simple. **Arthur** is the subject; **shot** is the predicate; **fox** and **duck** are the objects. **Fox** is modified by **an**, a definitive adjective, and by **old**, a descriptive adjective. **Duck** is modified by **a**, a definitive adjective, and by **wild**, a descriptive adjective.

1. Owls destroy rats and mice. 2. Industry and energy produce prosperity. 3. We have a wise judge and an able governor. 4. A carpenter and a farmer built that new house and this new fence. 5. Melvin and his brother caught a small, wild marmoset. 6. Temperance and frugality promote health and happiness.

"Brilliant rays of solar light pierce the heavy, broken clouds."

Rays		R. 1.	pierce		clouds		R. 6.
No.		brilliant			the	heavy	broken
6	of	light	R. 7.				
		Solar					

Rays is the subject, **pierce** is the predicate, **clouds** is the object. **Rays** is modified by **brilliant**, an adjective and by the phrase, **of light**. **Light** is modified by **the**, **heavy** and **broken**, three adjectives.

Direction.—Examine carefully the Method of Investigation on page 30 in the Brief Introductory Course at the end of this book.

5. PRONOUNS.

A Pronoun is a word that stands for a Noun.

The **Personal Pronouns** are *I, you, he, she* and *it*, in their declined forms.

Remarks.—The Pronouns, as arranged in the following table, should be written on the blackboard and allowed to remain there while the class is on this and the following topics. The forms may be learned by repeatedly referring to them.

SINGULAR NUMBER.

	PERSONAL PRONOUNS.					INTERROG.
NOMINATIVE FORMS	I	He	She	It	You	Who?
POSSESSIVE FORMS	My	His	Her	Its	Your	Whose?
OBJECTIVE FORMS	Me	Him	Her	It	You	Whom?
PLURAL NUMBER.						
NOMINATIVE FORMS	We	They			You	Who?
POSSESSIVE FORMS	Our	Their			Your	Whose?
OBJECTIVE FORMS	Us	Them			You	Whom?

Capitals.—The pronoun **I** and the word **O** should be written in capitals.

To the Teacher.—The spelling, the pronunciation, the meaning, and application of all new and difficult words and technical terms should be taught in special lessons devoted exclusively to that work. Every answer should be a complete sentence, every word of which should be pronounced clearly and forcibly.

Remark.—The class should be carried rapidly from one exercise to another. Every sentence should be diagrammed and analyzed repeatedly. The definitions may be learned incidentally by referring to them while using the technical terms in the analysis. The hands of four-fifths of the pupils should be raised in response to every question, otherwise there is a want of attention.

Analyze the following sentences **repeatedly**, using *this* as a model:

"They destroyed that beautiful forest."

They	destroyed	forest.
	that	beautiful

"They destroyed that beautiful forest" is a sentence; declarative; simple. **They** is the subject; **destroyed** the predicate; **forest** the object. **Forest** is modified by **that**, a definitive adjective, and by **beautiful**, a descriptive adjective.

1. I saw the old mill. 2. George Randall owns it. 3. He will sell it. 4. I shall see him. 5. Father wants the mill. 6. We shall have it. 7. Mary studies geography. 8. She wrote a nice letter. 9. We read it. 10. The girls saw us. 11. We saw them. 12. The little boy watched us.

Remark.—*The pupils should be capable of analyzing every sentence, thus far introduced, correctly and with rapidity, before advancing beyond this topic. (See the Appendix.)*

The **Interrogative Pronouns** are *who*, *which*, and *what*, when used in asking questions; as, "*Who* is that?" "*Which* is yours?" "*What* did you say?"

A **Declarative** sentence is one used to affirm or deny something.

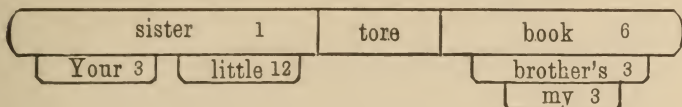
An **Interrogative** sentence is one used to ask a question.

1. Who broke that new slate? 2. Which did you want? 3. What did you say? 4. Who has a sharp knife? 5. You saw whom? 6. Who will take your place? 7. Whose ball have you? 8. What does he want? 9. Who took the prize? 10. Whom did they call?

Punctuation.—*An interrogation point (?) should be placed at the end of every interrogative sentence.*

Diagram and analyze the following sentences repeatedly, using this as a model. Write the number of the rule in the diagram by the word to which it applies.

"Your little sister tore my brother's book."



Your little sister tore my brother's book" is a sentence; declarative; simple. **Sister** is the subject; **tore** is the predicate; **book** the object. The subject, **sister**, is modified by **your**, a possessive, and by **little**, a descriptive adjective. The object, **book**, is modified by **brother's**, a possessive, and **brother's** is modified by **my**, a possessive.

Sister is a noun, the subject of the sentence, therefore nominative case Rule 1.

Book is a noun, the object of the transitive verb **tore**, therefore it is in the objective case, Rule 6.

RULE 6. A noun or pronoun, used as the object of a transitive verb, is in the objective case (and should have the objective form).

Your is a pronoun; it denotes possession, therefore it is in the possessive case, Rule 3.

RULE 3. A noun or pronoun denoting possession, or ownership, is in the possessive case (and should have the possessive form).

Brother's is a noun; it denotes possession, or ownership, therefore it is in the possessive case, Rule 3.

1. His dog caught our cat. 2. He broke my arrow. 3. James took your pencil. 4. I have his knife. 5. Jennie has Albert's hat. 6. She tore her apron. 7. Walter cut her rope. 8. She snatched his bright, new knife. 9. That big boy struck Henry's little brother.

Suggestion.—The cases of the nouns and pronouns should be explained immediately after the close of the oral analysis of each sentence, except when the teacher decides to have such explanation omitted.

Punctuation.—The apostrophe is used to show the possessive case, and to denote the omission of a letter or letters.

DECLENSION OF THE SIMPLE PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

FIRST PERSON.

<i>Singular.</i>			<i>Plural.</i>	
<i>Nom.</i>	I,		<i>Nom.</i>	We,
<i>Poss.</i>	My or mine,		<i>Poss.</i>	Our,
<i>Obj.</i>	Me.		<i>Obj.</i>	Us.

SECOND PERSON.

<i>Singular.</i>		<i>Plural.</i>		<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
<i>Nom.</i>	Thou,	Ye,		<i>Nom.</i>	You,
<i>Poss.</i>	Thy or thine,	Your,		<i>Poss.</i>	Your,
<i>Obj.</i>	Thee.	You.		<i>Obj.</i>	You.

THIRD PERSON.

<i>Singular.</i>					<i>Plural.</i>	
MAS.	FEM.	NEUT.			NEUT. OR COM.	
<i>Nom.</i>	He,	She,	It,		<i>Nom.</i>	They,
<i>Poss.</i>	His,	Her,	Its,		<i>Poss.</i>	Their,
<i>Obj.</i>	Him.	Her.	It.		<i>Obj.</i>	Them.

DECLENSION OF RELATIVE AND INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS.

	<i>Singular and Plural.</i>	<i>Singular and Plural.</i>
<i>Nom.</i>	Who,	Which,
<i>Poss.</i>	Whose,	Whose,
<i>Obj.</i>	Whom.	Which.

The **Singular Number** denotes but one; as, *bird*, *fox*.

The **Plural Number** denotes more than one; as, *birds*, *foxes*.

Remark.—Pronouns agree in number with the nouns they represent—their antecedents.

Analyze the following sentences repeatedly, making corrections when necessary. The following may be used as a model for correcting:

"Who did you see?"

you	R. 1.	did see	~~Who~~ R. 6.	whom?
-----	-------	---------	----------------------	-------

Who is a pronoun, the object of the transitive verb **did see**, therefore in the objective case, according to Rule 6, and should have the objective form, *whom*.

1. Walter will go. 2. *Him* and I will see you. 3. *Who* did you want? 4. He took the carriage. 5. *Me* and Henry saw him. 6. *Who* shall I trust? 7. *Who* can you save? 8. *Her* and *him* saw you. 9. Who swept the room? 10. *Us*. 11. Who rode the horse? 12. *Him* and *I*. 13. *Who* did you call? 14. He saw you and *I*. 15. *Who* did they meet? 16. George and *She*.

Rules. { Rule 1.—**Nominative Case**—Nominative form.
Rule 3.—**Possessive Case**—Possessive form.
Rule 6.—**Objective Case**—Objective form.

Suggestion.—All abbreviated sentences, like the tenth, twelfth and sixteenth, in the exercise above, should be completed before being analyzed or corrected. When the point is reached in the recitation where correction is made, a line should be drawn through the incorrect word and the correct one written in the diagram near it.

RULE 1.—The subject of a sentence is in the nominative case and should have the nominative form.

Remark.—Instead of the form for correcting sentences presented above a shorter form like the following may be used: **Who** is a violation of Rule six; it should have the **objective** form, *whom*.

RULE 6.—The object of a transitive verb is in the objective case and should have the objective form.

6. COPULATIVE VERB.

A **Verb** is a word which expresses being, action, or state; as, I *am*; William *walks*; The tree *stands*.

The **Copulative Verb**, *to be*, is used to join a predicate to a subject.

Verbs { Transitive, followed by an object, R. 6.
 { Intransitive, “ “ no object.
 { Copulative, Be, am, was, is, are, were, R. 2.

The **Predicate** of a sentence may be a transitive or intransitive verb, or it may be a noun, pronoun or adjective following a copulative verb.

Remark.—The verb, *to be*, in its different forms, **am, was, is, are, were, have been, has been**, etc., is the only copulative verb used under this topic.

Analyze the following sentences **repeatedly**, using this as a model:

“Virgil was a famous poet.”

Virgil R. 1.	was	T	poet	R. 2.
		a	famous	

“Virgil was a famous poet” is a sentence; declarative; simple. **Virgil** is the subject; **was** is the copula; **poet** is the predicate. **Poet** is modified by **a** and **famous**, two adjectives.

Poet is a noun used in a sentence after a **copulative** verb and meaning the same person as the subject, Virgil, it is therefore in the **nominative case**, according to Rule two.

RULE 2.—Every one of the different forms of the verb, **to be**, takes the same case after it as before.

Remark.—Pupils should be well trained in reading sentences omitting all modifiers, that is, in reading the three words which make a complete statement — *subject, predicate, object*, or *subject, copula, predicate*; as, Franklin **was** philosopher. Candle **is** wax. We shall **be** scholars. Criminal **should have been** executed.

1. Franklin *was* a philosopher. 2. Napoleon *was* a great commander. 3. That beautiful white candle *is* wax. 4. This white powder *is* quinine. 5. The officers *were* old men. 6. This blade *is* steel. 7. They *have been* soldiers. 8. We *are* studious pupils. 9. We *shall be* good scholars.

7. AUXILIARIES.

Auxiliary Verbs are those which are used in the formation of other verbs.

They are: *do, be, have, shall, will, may, can, must*. With the principal verbs, they form such groups as, *may be, shall have gone, must have seen*, etc., each of which should be treated as a single word.

"Such a leader should be stern and brave."

leader R. 1.		should be T stern <i>and</i> brave. R. 23.
[such a]		

“Such a leader should be stern and brave” is a sentence; declarative; simple. **Leader** is the subject; **should be** is the copula; **stern and brave** are the predicates. **Leader** is modified by **such a**, an adjective. **And** is a conjunction.

Stern is an adjective, used as the predicate of a sentence, and it modifies the subject, **leader**, Rule 23.

RULE 23. An adjective or participle, used as the predicate of a sentence, modifies the subject.

1. My book *is* old. 2. It *was* new. 3. It *has been* useful. 4. Your writing and drawing *are* beautiful. 5. My writing *is* poor. 6. That man *is* honest. 7. He *has been* wealthy. 8. His residence *is* large and beautiful. 9. Gen. Washington *was* amiable. 10. Gen. Jackson *was* stern.

Verbs are { Predicate, followed by an object, R. 6.
Predicate, " " no object.
Copulative, " " { Predicate or predicate, R. 2.
 { Predicate, R. 23.

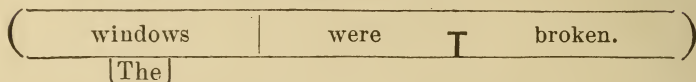
The **Predicate** of a sentence may consist of any one of what five different things?

8. PARTICIPLES.

The **Participle** is a form of the verb that may be used as a *noun* or an *adjective*. It generally ends in *ing*, *ed*, or *en*; as, *falling*, *destroyed*, *written*.

Analyze the following sentences, using this as a model:

"The windows were broken."

**First method:**

Windows is the subject; **were** is the copula; **broken** is the predicate.

Second method:

Windows is the subject; **were broken** is the predicate.

1. The castle *had been* stormed. 2. That strong fortress *was* destroyed.
3. The city *was* captured. 4. The proud, haughty people *were* humbled.
5. We *were* alarmed. 6. They *were* terrified.
7. The scanty stores *had been* taken. 8. The soldiers *were* wounded.

Verbs	{	Transitive , The boy wrote a letter.
		Intransitive , The boy walks.
		Copulative , Be, am, was, is, are, were, R. 2.

COPULATIVE VERBS.

T Am T was T is T are T were T have been T

Many of the errors we observe in general conversation arise from inability to distinguish the copulative from the transitive verbs. Copulative verbs are followed by nominative forms of nouns and pronouns, while transitive verbs are followed by the objective forms. If the noun or pronoun *after* the verb means the same person or thing as noun or pronoun *before* the verb, it is a copulative verb.

COMPOUND SENTENCES.

Conjunctions join together words and sentences.

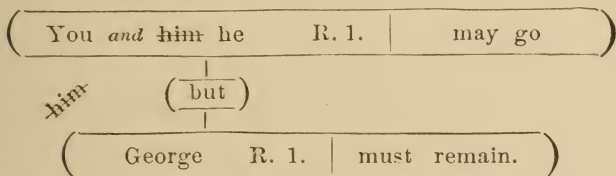
A **Simple Sentence** is a single thought expressed in words.

A **Compound Sentence** is composed of two simple sentences joined together by a conjunction.

Remark.—*And* and *but* are the only conjunctions to be used in this grade, and no compound sentence is to contain more than two simple sentences.

Analyze the following sentences **repeatedly** and **correct** all mistakes by the application of the rules:

"You and him may go but George must remain."



Him is a violation of Rule one; it should have the nominative form, *he*.

Rule 1.—The subject of a sentence is in the nominative case and should have the nominative form.

"You and he may go, but George must remain," is a sentence, compound. **You** and **he** are the subjects of the first simple sentence; **may go** is the predicate.

George is the subject of the second simple sentence; **must remain** is the predicate. **And** is a conjunction connecting two words; **but** is a conjunction connecting two sentences.

1. Matilda and I prepared the dinner, Lawrence and he cut the wood. 2. My brother caught a wild duck but Henry and *me* caught nothing. 3. Doctor Lee practices surgery and his uncle practices medicine. 4. Walter and Julian discovered him and I. 5. Albert and *me* will remain, but *her* and Julia may go.

Suggestion.—If your class is now commencing the study of this subject, it will be well to begin with the work in the Brief Introductory Course, Stepping Stones. Observe the 'Method of Investigation' on page 30 at the end of this book.

9. RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

A **Relative Pronoun** is a pronoun and a **conjunction** united in one word. It stands for a noun or pronoun, called its antecedent, and it acts the part of a **conjunction**, by uniting together two sentences. The second sentence modifies a **word** in the first, thus forming a *complex* sentence.

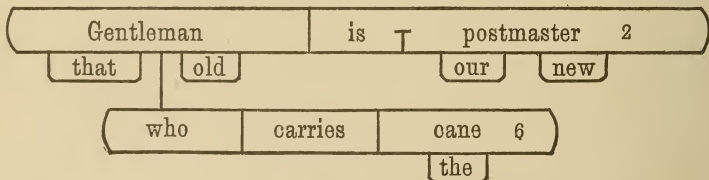
A **Complex Sentence** is one composed of a principal clause and one or more dependent or modifying clauses.

The **Relative Pronouns** are *who, which, what, that, and as*.

Suggestion.—In the diagram draw a line connecting the **relative pronoun** with its **antecedent**.

Analyze the following sentences repeatedly, using this as a model:

“That old gentleman who carries the cane is our new postmaster.”



“That old gentleman who carries the cane is our new postmaster” is a sentence; declarative; complex.

Gentleman is the subject of the principal sentence; **is** is the copula; **postmaster** is the predicate. The subject, **gentleman**, is modified by **that** and **old**, two adjectives; and by the clause, **who carries the cane**, of which **who** is the subject, **carries**, the predicate, and **cane**, the object. **Cane** is modified by **the**, an adjective. The predicate, **postmaster**, is modified by **our**, a possessive, and by **new**, an adjective. (Synthesis, page 41.)

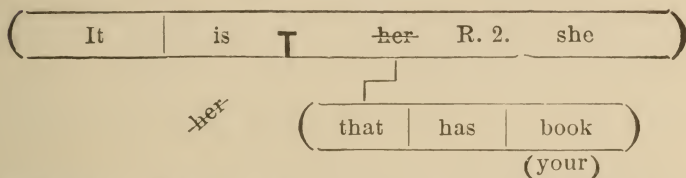
1. Mr. Mason, who is an attorney, wrote the deed. 2. It was Henry Carter that took your letter. 3. We will honor them who honor us. 4. The general respects the man who obeys his command. 5. The youth who was speaking was applauded. 6. We

Copulative Verb, **to be**—its different forms—followed by nominative, Rule two—**Am, was, is, are, were, have been,** etc.

Explanation.—The **relative clause** is a modifier of the noun for which the relative stands.

Analyze and correct the following sentences:

“It is her that has your book.”



Her is a pronoun used in a sentence after the copulative verb, **is**, and meaning the same person as the subject, **it**, it is therefore in the nominative case, Rule two, and should have the nominative form, *she*.

1. It was him that called you. 2. Him and I saw your little brother. 3. It is her that plays the organ. 4. Your friend, who we met, knows the doctor. 5. Some think it was her and some think it was me that won the prize. 6. It was not him but me that met you. 7. It could not have been her that wrote that letter. 8. If I had been him I would have done the same thing. 9. Whom do they say that I am? 10. I am him for whom you search. 11. It is them, not we, who are to blame.

Suggestion.—Some of the above sentences, being out of grade, may be omitted for the present.

RULE 2.—Every one of the different forms of the verb, **to be**, takes the same case after it as before.

Her is a violation of Rule 2; it should have the **nominative** form, *she*.

Verbs	{	Transitive, always followed by the Objective , R. 6.
		Intransitive,
		Copulative, To be, am, was, is, are, were, Nominative , R. 2.

The different forms of the verb *to be*, such as *am*, *was*, *is*, *are*, *were* and others, should be followed by the nominative forms of nouns and pronouns—not the objective forms.

To the Teacher.—*Everything should be learned by experience and observation while doing the work—analyzing the sentences—not by memorizing definitions and explanations.*

Nouns used as adjectives: George has a *paper* box. Skilful workmen make *glass* ornaments. Walker has a *gold* watch. A tall *iron* fence surrounds the park.

Adjectives used as nouns: The *good* are happy. The *innocent* are blessed. The *faithful* will be rewarded. The *charitable* relieve the poor. The *honest* are the just.

10. ADVERBS.

An **Adverb** is a word that is used to modify the meaning of a verb, an adjective, or another adverb.

Adverbs of **manner** answer the question: How? They generally, though not always, end in *ly*. The adjectives from which they are formed *do not* end in *ly*.

Analyze the following sentences, using this as a model:

“The wind blows violently.”

wind	R. 1.	blows
The		violently

“The wind blows violently” is a sentence; declarative; simple. **Wind** is the subject; **blows** the predicate. **Wind** is modified by **the**, an adjective; **blows** is modified by **violently**, an adverb of manner. (See Appendix.)

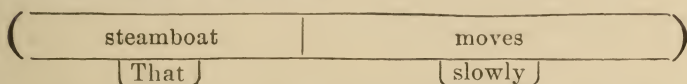
1. The river rose *rapidly*. 2. The sluggard sleeps *soundly*.
3. He acted *foolishly*. 4. They acted *wisely*. 5. The moments fly *rapidly*.
6. He fell *suddenly*. 7. We live *happily*. 8. Harry came *quickly*.
9. Our pupils write *nicely*. 10. The boy broke the stick

easily. 11. Slowly and sadly we laid him down. 12. You should analyze these sentences correctly and rapidly.

Remark.—In the exercises above, name the adjective from which the adverbs are formed.

Analyze the following sentences repeatedly and correct all mistakes by the application of the rules:

"That steamboat moves slow."



Slow modifies the verb, **moves**; it is therefore an adverb, and should have the adverbial form, *slowly*. Rule 18.

Rule 18.—Adverbs of manner should have the adverbial form which generally ends in *ly*.

1. That girl reads fluently. 2. Those beautiful birds sing sweet. 3. The doctors handled the wounded officers gentle. 4. The old gentleman treated us kind. 5. The rising sun shines brilliant. 6. The owl flies noiselessly. 7. How swift that racer runs! 8. That boy runs rapidly. 9. I thought it was them. 10. He knew it was us. 11. I am sure that it was them.

"Whom do they say that I am?"



No. 9

Whom is a violation of Rule two; it should have the nominative form **who**.

They is the subject, **do say** is the predicate, and the clause, **I am who**, is the object of the transitive verb, **do say**.

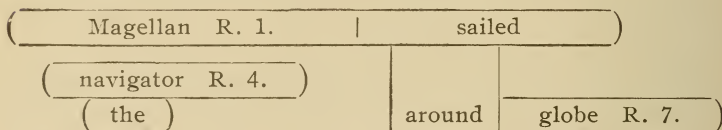
Remark.—A few extra lessons may, with advantage, be given in drawing diagrams without rulers and omitting the words. Neatness and rapidity are desirable if not necessary.

11. APPOSITIVES.

An **Appositive** is a noun or pronoun used to explain or identify a preceding noun or pronoun; as, Sherman, the *general*, not Sherman, the *statesman*, was appointed.

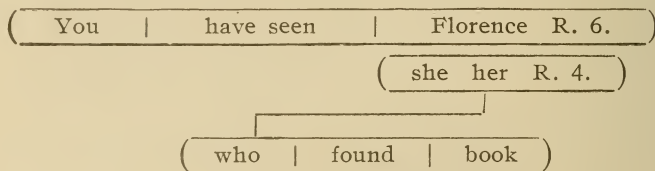
An **Appositive** means the same person or thing as the noun or pronoun which it modifies and it is put by apposition in the same case.

“Magellan, the navigator, sailed around the globe.”



Navigator is a noun used to identify **Magellan**, it is, therefore, put by apposition in the same case—the nominative, according to Rule 4.

“Have you seen Florence, she who found your book?”



She is a pronoun used to identify **Florence**, it is, therefore, put by apposition in the same case—the objective according to Rule 4, and should have the objective form, **her**.

Remark.—The practical work under this topic may be omitted until the class has completed the work as far as page forty-two.

1. Milton, the *poet*, was blind. 2. My brother, *John*, knew Garland, the *attorney*. 3. That boy, *James*, took my new knife. 4. The steamer *Baltic*, crossed the ocean. 5. I saw Matilda, your *sister*. 6. Victor Hugo, the famous French *author*, is dead. 7. You know George Herder, the *physician*. 8. W. B. Smith, that enterprising

merchant, is exceedingly wealthy. 9. Your brother, *Arthur*, took your paper. 10. Bolivar, the famous *warrior* and *patriot*, vanquished the Spanish forces.

RULE 4.—A noun or pronoun used to explain or identify a preceding noun or pronoun is put by apposition in the same case.

Direction.—Correct the following sentences first by the application of the rule and afterwards by the elimination of such words as may be considered superfluous.

2. I met your brother, *he* who owns the mill. 2. It was George, *him* that we met. 3. Did you see Mrs. Taylor, *she* who keeps the store? 4. I know your sisters, *they* that go to school. 5. It was Nettie, *her* whose name they called. 6. Have you seen Victoria, *she* who found your book? 7. I know the manager, *he* who made the contract.

Punctuation.—*The appositive with its modifiers should be separated from the rest of the sentence by commas.*

An **Imperative Sentence** is one used to express a command, an entreaty, an exhortation or permission; as, “*Children, obey your parents.*” “*Study your lesson.*” “*Come here quickly.*”

To the Teacher.—*Are you doing the work in the order in which it is given without omitting any part of it? If not you will fail to produce the best results.*

Questions.—What is a relative pronoun? A complex sentence? The relative sentence—clause—generally modifies a word; what is that word called? What is the difference between a compound and complex sentence? Give an example of an adjective used as a noun. A noun used as an adjective. Are adverbs ever formed from adjectives? Adverbs of manner generally end in what syllable? When is an appositive in the nominative case? Under what conditions is it in the objective case? What about the punctuation of the appositive?

12. PREPOSITIONAL PHRASE.

A **Preposition** is a word used with a noun or pronoun to form a phrase that is used as a modifier.

A **Phrase** is two or more words that cannot be separated without destroying the meaning.

A **Prepositional Phrase** is composed of a preposition and a noun or a pronoun, which is called the **object** of the preposition.

Explanation.—A preposition is never used, except with a noun or pronoun—its object—and the two words invariably form a combination—a phrase—which is used as an adjective or an adverbial modifier.

Analyze the following sentences repeatedly, using this as a model:

“A life of prayer is a life of heaven.”

(life R. 1. is T life R. 2.)	
(A R. 12.)	(a)
of prayer R. 7.)	of heaven R. 7.)

“A life of prayer is a life of heaven” is a sentence; declarative; simple. **Life** is the subject; **is** is the copula; **life** is the predicate. The subject, **life**, is modified by **a**, an adjective, and by the phrase, **of prayer**; **of** being the preposition, and **prayer** its object. The predicate, **life**, is modified by **a**, an adjective, and by the phrase, **of heaven**; **of** being the preposition, and **heaven** its object.

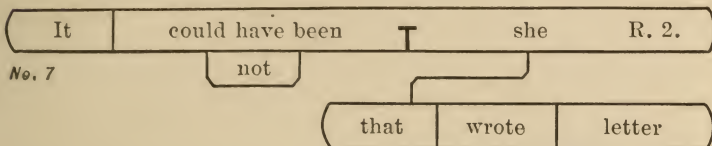
1. Mr. Dodd is wealthy. 2. He is a man of wealth. 3. Henry is strong. 4. He is a boy of strength. 5. The City of Mexico is beautiful. 6. The captain of the guard disappeared. 7. The lion is a beast of prey. 8. The parrot is a bird of beautiful plumage. 9. Hilda tore the cover of my book. 10. A man of honor will never forsake his friends.

RULE 7.—The object of a preposition is in the objective case (and should have the objective form).

2. Burgoyne surrendered at Saratoga. 2. The church stands beside the river. 3. The artist came from Italy. 4. The crow flew over the hill. 5. The squirrel climbed up the tree. 6. They went

to Boston. The arrow flew through the air 8. It dropped on the pavement. 9. The steamer moves toward the east. 10. The dog ran around the garden.

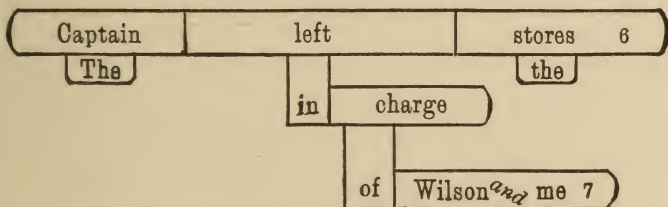
"It could not have been her that wrote the letter."



Her is a violation of Rule two; it should have the nominative form, *she*. **She** is modified by the relative clause, **that wrote the letter**.

Analyze the following sentences repeatedly and correct the mistakes by the application of the rules.

"The Captain left the stores in charge of Wilson and I."



I is a pronoun, used as the object of a preposition, it is therefore in the objective case, R. 7, and should have the objective form, *me*.

"The captain left the stores in charge of Wilson and me" is a sentence; declarative; simple. **Captain** is the subject; **left** is the predicate; **stores** is the object. The subject, **Captain**, is modified by **the**, a definitive adjective. The predicate, **left**, is modified by the phrase, **in charge**, and **charge** is modified by the phrase, **of Wilson and me**.

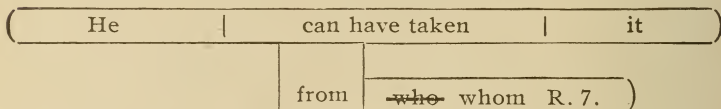
1. *Who* did you write to? 2. They gave the books to George and *I*. 3. *Who* did you get the picture from? 4. I will assist you and him. 5. He should have received his share from you and *I*. 6. Walter and me gathered these flowers in the wild forest. 7. He and I are cousins. 8. She and Clara are great

friends. 9. My sister and me prepared the breakfast. 10. Him and I remained at the academy during the whole day.

Remark.—The use of a preposition at the end of a sentence should be avoided.

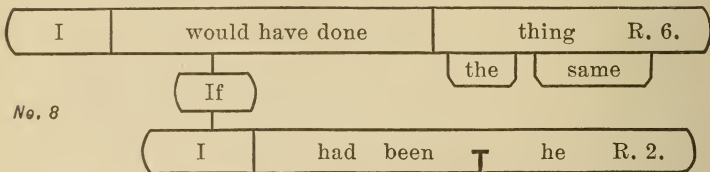
1. All the cadets were present except my brother. 2. I know your cousin, he who lives in Cleveland. 3. Who does the slate belong to? 4. To whom does the slate belong? 5. Between you and I he is not noted for honesty. 6. Him and I were present at the time.

"Who can he have taken it from?"



Who is a violation of Rule seven; it should have the objective form, *whom*.

"If I had been him I would have done the same thing"



Him is a violation of Rule two; it should have the nominative form, *he*.

I is the subject, **would have done**, is the predicate, **thing** is the object. The predicate, **would have done**, is modified by the clause, **if I had been he**.

Remark.—Every mistake in language is a violation of a Rule of Grammar. We cannot apply a single Rule of Grammar to a single word in a sentence without analyzing the sentence—or a part of it.

EXAMINATION IN GRAMMAR.

Examine the following sentences carefully. If you find a mistake in any one or more of them, give the number of the sentence, correct it and give your reason for making the change.

1. Him and I are old friends.
2. Who did your brother want?
3. Neither of the boys were present.
4. Who did he get that machine from?
5. I was sure that it was them.
6. Walter is the tallest of the two boys.

If the members of your class are prepared to correct the sentences above as they are corrected below, you may conclude that you are using the best method of teaching language through the medium of grammar.

1. "Him" is a violation of Rule one; it should have the nominative form, *he*. He and I are old friends. Page 17.

2. "Who" is a violation of Rule six; it should have the objective form, *whom*. Whom did your brother want?

3. "Were" is a violation of Rule thirteen; it should have the singular form, *was*. Neither of the boys was present. Page 33.

4. "Who" is a violation of Rule seven; it should have the objective form, *whom*. From whom did you get that machine?

5. "Them" is a violation of Rule two; it should have the nominative form, *they*.

6. "Tallest" is an adjective used in comparing two persons, it should, therefore, have the comparative form, *taller*.

If the members of the class cannot analyze and correct the sentences above as rapidly as they can talk, there is something deficient in the method of instruction and you had better review, commencing with page seventeen.

Remark.—Every class in the fourth or fifth grade should do the work in that section known as Stepping Stones, beginning with page seven.

13. AGREEMENT OF VERBS.

	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
Speaking of ourselves:	{ I am . I was .	{ We are . We were . }
Speaking of other persons or things:	{ He is . He was . He has . He writes .	{ They are . They were . They have . They write . }

Singular forms of the verb, **to be**, are *am*, *was*, *is*.

Plural forms are *were* and *are*.

Of verbs in general it may be said, when speaking of persons and things in present time:

Singular verbs end in **s**. **Plural verbs** do *not* end in **s**.

Number { Singular: The boy **reads** well.
Plural: The boys **read** well.

Correct the following sentences, using the following as models:

“Many members of the House of Lords *was* absent at the time.”

Was is a verb, having the plural subject, **members**, therefore it should have the plural form, *were*; R. 13.

RULE 13.—A Verb must agree with its subject in number.

“The president, the auditor and the secretary of state *writes* letters every day.”

Writes is a violation of **rule thirteen**; it should have the plural form, *write*.

Remark.—The pronoun **you** is plural in form, and should be followed by a verb in the plural, even when it represents a singular noun.

Sentences to be corrected:

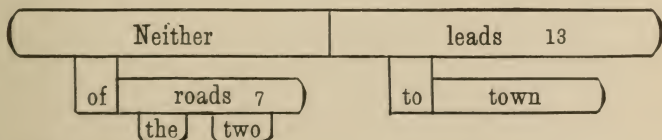
1. Mr. Johnson and his brother *was* at the meeting. 2. Time and tide *waits* for no man. 3. He works at the mill, and his brother and sister *stays* in the office. 4. Your uncle, in company with two young men, *were* here. 5. His talents, his wisdom, and his personal appearance *attracts* attention. 6. George, together with his sister, *are* attending school. 7. Ambition and avarice in man *is* a source of unhappiness. 8. The horse and the hero *falls* together. 9. A number of horses, together with a large amount of other property, *were* destroyed by fire last night. 10. A large crowd of soldiers, sailors, physicians, lawyers, farmers and mechanics *were* collected.

Verbs { Transitive, The king protected the people.
Intransitive, The king arrived in time.
Copulative, Am, was, is, are, were, nominative, R. 2.

The **Definitive Adjectives**, *each*, *every*, *either*, and *neither*, when used as nouns, are **singular**. As the subjects of sentences, they should be followed by verbs in the singular. As adjectives, they modify singular nouns only.

Correct the following sentences, using this as a model:

“Either of the two roads *lead* to town.”



Lead is a verb, having the singular subject, **either**, therefore it should have the singular form, *leads*; R. 13.

1. Every one of the pupils were provided with paper by the teacher. 2. Each of the boys write seven pages a day. 3. Neither of the lessons were well prepared. 4. Neither of the men were at the office. 5. Neither of the houses stand alone. 6. Every one of the officers do their duty well.

Remark.—The pronoun, **them**, should never be used to point out a noun instead of **this** or **that**, **these** or **those**.

Two adjectives only, **this** and **that**, have plural forms, viz.: **these** and **those**. There are, however, many others that are in their nature either singular or plural.

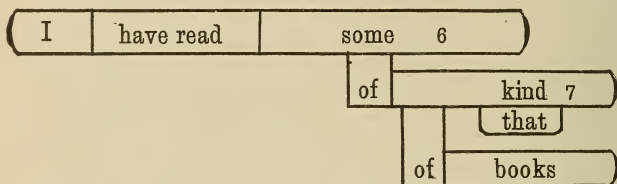
Remark.—**This** and **these** are applied to things near the speaker, **that** and **those** to things distant either in time or space.

RULE 22. An adjective and the noun which it modifies should agree in number.

Examples.—This book, this kind, that book, that kind, these books, those books, several hats, both hands, an hour, this sort, that sort.

Correct the following sentences, using this as a model:

“I have read some of *those* kind of books.”



Those is an adjective, modifying the singular noun, *kind*, therefore, it should have the singular form, *that*; R. 22.

1. I would like some of *them* cherries. 2. Nellie had some of *those* kind. 3. Jennie does not like *these* kind. 4. She wants *those* sort. 5. My uncle had some of *them* kind of apples. 6. He always kept *these* kind for his own use, and he generally gave *those* sort away. 7. *Them* boys took my books, and they left *them* other books on the desk. 8. *Those* sort of pictures are quite common. 9. I like *these* kind better.

Questions.—What is the singular form of the verb, walk? were? know? are? ride? give? have? drink? run? sing? What is the plural form of the verb, am? is? works? writes? lives? was? rules?

EXERCISES.

To be corrected—not analyzed:

1. There is several hundred people in the valley. 2. Was you there on Saturday? 3. Circumstances alters cases. 4. Peaches is very scarce this season. 5. Has the children taken your hat? 6. There is hardly any apples on the tree. 7. Several parts of a broken rope was twisted around it. 8. There is fine opportunities for energetic young men here. 9. What's them things for? 10. Those three books has cost me seven dollars.

2. Them people lived in houses that was built on piles. 2. Two of my little friends has written a letter to you. 3. Three coats is two too many for one boy. 4. No two of them was alike. 5. Has the papers been delivered? 6. He and Eugene goes to market every day. 7. Was you at home last night? 8. Those kind of people are never satisfied. 9. Which of these two books are yours? 10. Them apples will be wasted. 11. These sort of expressions should be avoided. 12. Either him or her have taken my books.

14. COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES.

Comparison is a variation in form of the adjective to express different degrees of quality; as *good, better, best*.

The **Positive** degree ascribes to an object the simple quality; as, "He is a wise man."

The **Comparative** degree ascribes to one of two objects a higher or lower degree of the quality than that expressed by the positive.

Explanation.—The **Comparative** degree is used when **two** things are compared. It generally ends in **r** or **er**: He is the wiser of the two men.

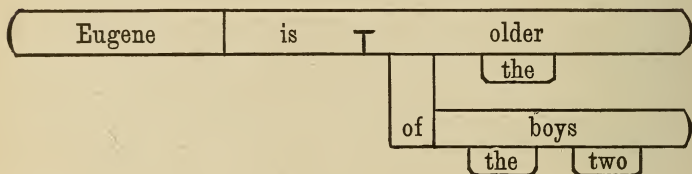
The **Superlative** degree ascribes the highest or lowest degree of the quality to one of more than two objects.

Explanation.—The **Superlative** degree is used when **more than two** things are compared. It generally ends in **est**: He is the wisest of all the men.

Comparison of Adjectives.	{	Positive. Simple form.
		Comparative, er. Two things.
		Superlative, est. More than two things.

Correct the following sentences, using this as a model:

“Eugene is the oldest of the two boys.”



Oldest is an adjective modifying the predicate, **boy**, understood. Since only two persons are compared, it is in the comparative degree and should have the comparative form, *older*; Or:

Oldest, is an adjective modifying the subject, **Eugene**; R. 23. Since only two persons are compared, it is the **comparative degree**, and it should have the comparative form, *older*.

“Eugene is the older of the two boys” is a sentence; declarative; simple. **Eugene** is the subject; **is** is the copula; **older** is the predicate, and is modified by the phrase, **of boys**; **boys** is modified by **the** and **two**, definitive adjectives.

1. My book is the *best* of the two. 2. Willie is the *stronger* of the three boys. 3. Of the four doors, this is the *larger*. 4. Of the five pictures, this one is the *prettier*. 5. Frank is the *best* reader of the two boys, and Maggie is the *best* writer of all the girls. 6. Man is the *greater* of all created beings. 7. Hannibal was the *bravest* of the two generals. 8. Of all the drawings, Percy’s is the *neater* and the *better*. 9. Of the four pieces of lace, this is, perhaps, the *finer*. 10. Of the two evils choose the *least*. 11. Which of these two instruments is the *best*? 12. Lillie is the *eldest* of my two sisters. 13. The *younger* of the four brothers is the *taller*. 14. Of the two, I consider this the *worst*. 15. Which is the *eldest*, Blanch or Adelle? 16. This **knife** is the *sharpest* of the two.

Adjectives of two or more syllables are generally compared by prefixing *more* and *most*, or *less* and *least*; as, *beautiful*, *more beautiful*, *most beautiful*; *able*, *less able*, *least able*.

Remark.—Some adjectives are compared irregularly; as, good, better, best; little, less, least; much, more, most; bad, worse, worst; fore, former, foremost.

15. ADVERBS.

An **adverb** is a word used to modify the meaning of a verb, an adjective, a participle, or another adverb.

Adverbs may be divided into five general classes: adverbs of **manner**, of **degree**, of **time**, of **place**, and of **cause**.

Adverbs of **manner** answer the question: *How?*

Adverbs answer the questions:	{	How?
		How much?
		Why? Wherefore?
		Where? Whither? Whence?
		When? How long? How often?

Adverbs of Degree answer the questions: How much? How little?

1. His mind was *wholly* absorbed. 2. He was *almost* lost. 3. James can *only* read. 4. He *scarcely* moves. 5. They labored *long enough*. 6. We were *almost* ready. 7. This work is *much* better. 8. It was *wholly* destroyed. 9. They had *partly* engaged him. 10. The penalty was *too* severe.

Adverbs of Time answer the questions: *When?*
How long? *How often?*

1. The doctor dines *early*. 2. You may call *again*. 3. We *seldom* go away. 4. I have seen you *often*. 5. The doctor *sometimes* smokes. 6. He *seldom* chews. 7. Some flowers *always* bloom early. 8. Dr. Brown lived here *formerly*. 9. *Thrice* they offered him a crown.

Adverbs of Place answer the questions: *Where?*
From what place? *To what place?*

1. They did not know him *there*. 2. The man stood *here*. 3. He will go *hence*. 4. They shot their arrows *away*. 5. The sailor went *aloft*. 6. He will come *down* again. 7. They climb *aloft*. 8. He went *below*.

Adverbs of Cause answer the questions: *Why?*
Wherefore?

Interrogative Adverbs are such as are used in asking questions; as, *Why* have you broken your contract? *Whither* has he gone?

Remark.—The words *yes* and *no* are regarded as adverbs used as entire sentences in elliptical form; as “Will you go?” “Yes” (I will go); “No” (I will not go).

16. COMPARISON OF ADVERBS.

Many adverbs admit of comparison.

Some adverbs are compared by adding *er* and *est* to the simple form; as, *fast, faster, fastest; often, oftener, oftenest; soon, sooner, soonest*.

Adverbs ending in *ly* are generally compared by prefixing *more*, and *most*, *less* and *least* to the simple form; as, *wisely, more wisely, most wisely; swiftly, less swiftly, least swiftly*.

Some adverbs are compared irregularly; as, *well, better, best; ill, worse, worst; little, less, least; much, more, most*, etc.

An **Adverbial Phrase** is a combination of words used as a single adverb; as, "*In general*," "*hand in hand*," "*one by one*."

EXERCISES.

To be analyzed:

1. They lived *very happily*. 2. The moments fly *rapidly*. 3. I came *again*, and *away* he went. 4. We reproved him *severely*, but he did *not* care. 5. The doctor was *very* gentle and *exceedingly* kind. 6. We treated him *handsomely*. 7. The little boy was *very* naughty. 8. He signed it *then* and *there*. 9. The mystery will be explained *by and by*. 10. Mr. Willard and his companion were *greatly* disappointed.

2. I have *never* seen him. 2. You must do that *no more*. 3. He should speak *more distinctly*. 4. That ponderous locomotive moves that long train *quite easily*. 5. We were *greatly* excited. 6. That fine new house was shaken *violently*. 7. I have read it *again and again*. 8. He will do so *no more*. 9. *Perchance* you are the man. 10. The very fairest flowers usually wither the *most quickly*. 11. They travel *side by side*. 12. The children walk *hand in hand*. 13. The birds flew away *one by one*. 14. The athlete climbed the ladder *hand over hand*. 15. He lost his influence *little by little*.

Mr. James Y. Player,
Burlington, Iowa.

Dear Sir,---(We acknowledge the receipt of the plated goods recently ordered from your house, and beg leave to compliment you on the fine condition in which they were delivered.

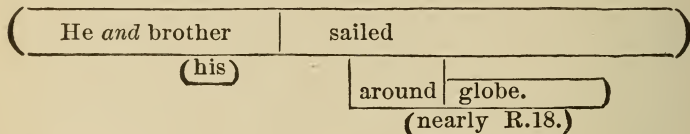
Very respectfully,

Randall, Hale & Co

17. PREPOSITIONS—Understood.

In many expressions in our language, the **prepositions** are **wanting**. In such cases they are said to be **understood**; as, "George gave (x) me his book."

Prepositional Phrases are sometimes modified by adverbs; as, "He and his brother sailed **nearly** around the globe."



1. Blucher arrived *just in time*. 2. She threw the ball *almost over the house*. 3. Good humor spreads happiness around *just as the sun sheds its light on all (just in manner in which)*. 4. The house stands *exactly on the line*. 5. The church is *just around the corner*. 6. He goes home *immediately after dinner*.

2. That book, Hayden's Dictionary of Dates, is valued (x) **three dollars**. 2. He remains at the office (x) **six hours** (x) **every day**. 3. They return (to) home in the evening. 4. Mr. Hall is worth (x) **a million of dollars**. 5. We don't care (x) **a straw**. 6. Spring has already covered his grave (x) **twelve inches** with flowers. 7. The poor, dissipated student was refused (x) **his diploma**. 8. The ship sailed (x) **four knots** (x) **an hour**. 9. He wore his coat (x) **cloak-fashion**. 10. That new work, Polar and Tropical America, is worth (x) **five dollars**. 11. Give (x) me some of those pamphlets, The Signs of the Times. 12. I will pay (to) you some time (x) **next week**.

CAPITALS.—Begin with capitals nouns, adjectives, and verbs, in the titles of books, or the headings of compositions.

Questions.—What is an adverb? Adverbs that end in **ly** are of what class? What is the difference in form between an adverb of manner and an adjective? Name the different classes of adverbs. What are interrogative adverbs? Is an adverbial phrase an inseparable combination? Would you treat an adverbial phrase as a single word? Compare the adverbs, **fast** swiftly, well, wisely, ill, and much.

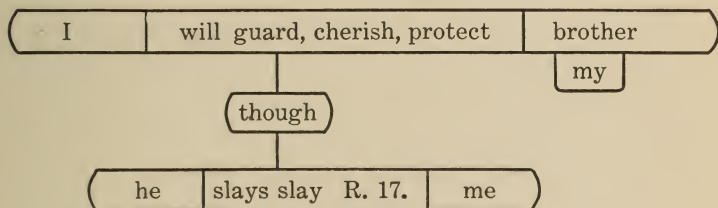
SUBJUNCTIVE CLAUSES.

The **Subjunctive Clause** is used to express a *condition*, a *doubt*, a *wish*, a *motive*, a *supposition*, or a *possibility*. It is generally introduced by such conjunctions as *if*, *though*, *unless*, *except*, *lest*, *that*, etc.

RULE 17. In subjunctive clauses the plural form of the verb is generally used, even with singular subjects.

Analyze and correct the following sentences:

“Though he slays me, yet will I guard, cherish and protect my brother.”



Slays may be correct in accordance with R. 13, but it is a violation of R. 17 and it should have the subjunctive or plural form, *slay*.

1. Make peace with thine enemy, lest he injures thee. 2. It is my desire that he goes at once. 3. Unless the miller grinds our corn, we will have no meal. 4. If it rains this evening, I will remain at home. 5. The general commanded that the traitor dies for the crime. 6. I wish that I was he. 7. If thy brother offends thee, rebuke him; if he repents, forgive him. Page 71.

Question.—How are we to know that *slays* is a verb in the subjunctive mode?

Answer.—If it is in a clause which expresses a condition, a doubt, a wish, a motive, a supposition or a possibility, it is in a subjunctive clause, and the verb is, therefore, in the subjunctive mode and is governed by R. 17, if not in such clause, it is governed by R. 13.

INFINITIVE PHRASE.

The **Infinitive** is a form of verb that may be used as a *noun*, an *adjective* or an *adverb*, as, *To labor* is the lot of man. Harold wanted *to go*. A desire *to steal* is a mania with some people.

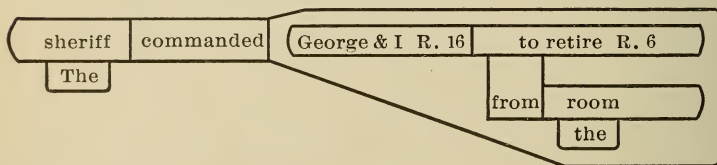
The **Infinitive Phrase** is a combination of the infinitive with one or more other words from which it cannot be separated without destroying the meaning. It may be used as a noun, an adjective or an adverb. Page 52.

Examples.—He wanted his *brother to go*. For *him to remain* was the desire of his brother. A desire *to resist you*, prompted him.

RULE 16.—The subject of an infinitive is in the objective case and should have the objective form. Page 59.

Analyze and correct the following sentences:

“The sheriff commanded George and I to retire from the room.”



George and **I** are the two subjects of the infinitive, to retire, **I** is therefore in the objective case according to R. 16, and should have the objective form, **me**.

1. The instructor wanted you and I to remain. 2. The king required he and his followers to leave the country. 3. The officer heard he and I read the papers. 4. The conductor commanded him and I to leave the car. 5. My brother saw Henry and me run to the door. 6. The teacher will make her and her companion regret their conduct. 7. Let Florence and I go to the post office.

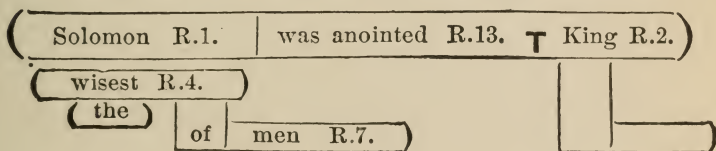
18. COPULATIVE VERB—Completed.

A **Copulative Verb** is one which is used to join a predicate to a subject and to make an assertion; as, "George *is* honest;" They *seem* confident of success;" "He *was appointed* commander of the fleet;" "It *was* he."

Explanation.—The verb, **to be**, is the only **pure copulative**. But the verbs, *seem*, *appear*, *become*, and many others are used as copulative verbs. Also the passive forms, *is named*, *is styled*, *is called*, *is elected*, *is appointed*, etc., have the force of copulatives and are regarded as such.

Definition.—Any verb for which some form of the verb, **to be**, may be substituted in a sentence, without destroying the meaning, is a copulative verb.

"Solomon, the wisest of men, was anointed King of Israel."



"Solomon, the wisest of men, was anointed King of Israel," is a sentence; declarative; simple. **Solomon** is the subject; **was anointed** is the copula; **King** is the predicate. **Solomon** is modified by **wisest**, an appositive; **wisest** is modified by **the**, a definitive adjective, and by the phrase, **of men**. **King** is modified by the phrase, **of Israel**.

Wisest is an adjective used as a noun, R. 4, or an adjective modifying **man**, understood, R. 12.

1. He *seems* weary. 2. He *is* weary. 3. He *appeared* an artist in manner. 4. In manner he *was* an artist. 5. Mr. Sumner *was elected* Senator before his death. 6. He *was* a Senator before his death. 7. Mr. Fleming *was appointed* Governor of Dakota. 8. Mr. Fleming *was* Governor of Dakota. 9. George Hill *was called* a wealthy man.

To the Teacher.—Careless, thoughtless work on the part of the pupils—too many mistakes in the diagrams (analysis) should not be tolerated. The exercises in false syntax should be reviewed frequently.

2. He *was called* John. 2. Charles Slayback *was elected* President of the Merchants Exchange. 3. Alexander, King of Macedon, *was styled* The Great. 4. She *was named* Elizabeth. 5. By their election they *were constituted* members of the organization. 6. He *was esteemed* a gentleman of high order. 7. All his efforts *proved* failures. 8. His two sons *were considered* excellent workmen. 9. He *seems* an old man since his return from abroad. 10. The road *became* rough. 11. He *was regarded* wealthy. 12. Walter Scott *is called* the Wizard of the North. 13. William, Duke of Normandy, *is styled* The Conqueror. 14. Those pupils *were considered* smart but these *seemed* slow. 15. Walter Stuart *appeared* shabby but he *was considered* wealthy.

Suggestion.—When the body of a letter like the one below is presented in this work it is with the suggestion that it be written on paper in good letter form with all the missing parts supplied by the pupils.

A LETTER.

MY DEAR MOTHER,—Your very affectionate letter was received this morning, and I regret to say it reminds me that I have been too negligent in writing to you. I confess that, in my anxiety to be successful in business, I am too apt to forget that you may be lonely without me, but be assured I never cease in my affections, nor for a minute forget how much I owe you.

My business expectations have been more than realized, and my hopes for the future are such, that I think I shall very soon be able to offer you a home with me in this city. Therefore, dear mother, be of good cheer, for while the world goes happily with me, its sunshine shall rest on you. With my regards to all our friends, I remain—

Punctuation.—*Parenthetical words, phrases and clauses should be separated from the rest of the sentence by commas. They are such words, phrases and clauses as are not essential to the meaning, and may, therefore, be omitted.*

Questions.—Define copulative verb. Name the pure copulatives. Name other verbs used as copulatives. What noun understood does *wisest* in the diagramed sentence modify? When adjectives are used as nouns, are the nouns generally understood? *Certainly*. What punctuation point is usually placed after the salutation of a letter?

19. COMPLEX SENTENCES.

A **Complex Sentence** consists of a principal sentence, one of the words of which is modified by a subordinate sentence—a **clause**.

A clause may be used as an **adjective** or **adverbial** modifier, or as the **Subject** of a sentence, as the **Object** of a transitive verb, or as the **Predicate** of a sentence.

An **Element** may be a **word**, a **phrase**, or a **clause**.

An **Adjective Element** is a word, phrase, or clause modifying a noun.

An **Adverbial Element** is a word, phrase, or clause modifying a verb, adjective, or adverb.

An **Objective Element** is a word, phrase, or clause used as the object of a transitive verb.

20. CONJUNCTIONS.

Co-ordinate Conjunctions are those which join elements of the same rank or name.

Examples.—*And, but, also, however, else, otherwise, or, nor, hence, thence, then, therefore, wherefore, for, because, so, consequently, accordingly*

Subordinate Conjunctions are those which are used in complex sentences to join the subordinate or modifying sentence to the word modified in the principal sentence.

Examples.—*When, after, where, if, unless, except, because, since, although, though, for, whereas, lest, ere, before, until, whilst, whence, whether, than.*

Explanation.—Sometimes two or more words enter into the composition of a connective. In such cases the several words must be taken together, treated as one conjunction, and placed in the same circle in the diagram.

Examples.—*As well as, as if, not only, but also, except that, for as much as, but likewise, notwithstanding that.*

Correlatives are used in pairs. The two words which form the complete conjunction stand at different places in the sentence.

Examples.—He controls *both* public *and* private affairs. *Either* come or send quickly. *Neither* act *nor* promise hastily. She speaks *so* low, *that* she is not heard. She is not *so* amiable *as* her sister. You are *as* tall *as* he is. *As* he thinks *so* he acts.

Mr. C. W. Benton,
Milton, Ind.

Dear Sir,—Your letter with Bill of Lading received last Thursday.

The goods arrived yesterday evening in good condition, except four Chilled Iron Points, which were broken, also three Garden Hoes, the handles of which were split and worm eaten. Shall I return them, or deduct the value of each from the total amount to be remitted, less discount?

Please answer by telegram, at my expense,
and oblige,

Your customer,
A. M. Woodman.

Prepositions are frequently composed of two words. In the diagram and in the analysis such combinations should be treated as a single word.

Examples.—*From beyond, from within, according to, contrary to, as to, as for, because of, instead of, out of, over against, from betwixt, from among, owing to.*

A **Conjunctive Adverb** is a conjunction which carries with it the force of an adverb.

Explanation.—A conjunctive adverb is generally equivalent to two phrases; as, "Herman will go *when* (at the time at which) you return;" "We will remain *while* (during time during which) you are gone."

Examples.—*When, while, as, after, like, before, how, till, since, etc.*

Words of Euphony are words which are placed in a sentence for the sake of sound or for the sake of rhetorical effect. They add to the elegance of expressions, but in the analysis they may often be omitted, since they have but slight, if any, grammatical connection with the other words in the sentence.

Examples.—*There were no idlers there. It was cowardly in him to fly. Now, then, we are prepared. He, himself, destroyed his chances. Well, who are you? Indeed, and what did he say? He taught even crows to sing. There, now, you have said enough.*

CHICAGO, Sept. 26, 1889.

MR. HENRY MAYNARD,

RACINE, WIS.

Dear Sir,—We take pleasure in sending this day, by your order, the enclosed invoice of goods, amounting to \$1,400, subject to 5 per cent discount—prompt cash.

We have no hesitation in opening an account and allowing you our best terms.

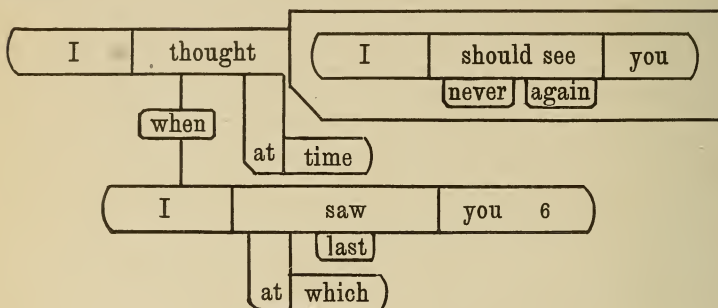
Trusting that the goods, which are shipped by Express, will arrive safe and meet your favor, we are,

Yours truly,

HERRMANN & CO.

Analyze the following sentences, using this as a model:

"I thought when I saw you last *that* I should never see you again."



This is a sentence; declarative; complex. **I thought** is the principal sentence; **when I saw you last**, and **that I should never see you again**, are subordinate sentences.

I is the subject of the principal sentence; **thought** is the predicate. The predicate **thought**, is modified by the clause, **when I saw you last**, an adverbial element, and by the clause, **that I should never see you again**, an objective element. **I** is the subject of the objective clause; **should see** is the predicate and is modified by **you**, an objective element, and by **never** and **again**, adverbial elements. **I** is the subject of the adverbial clause; **saw** is the predicate and is modified by **you**, an objective element, and by **last**, an adverbial element. **When** is the connective.

Explanation.—**That** is a word of euphony and therefore omitted in the analysis. **When** is a Conjunctive Adverb equivalent to the two phrases, *at time*, *at which*; **time** being the antecedent of the relative, **which**.

EXERCISES.

To be analyzed:

Clauses used as **Adverbial** elements:

1. *When he returns*, all will be well. 2. *While he sang*, they listened. 3. I shall leave *after you*. 4. He builds a palace of ice *where the torrents fall*. 5. That horse will run away *unless you catch him*. 6. He proved unworthy of confidence, *therefore he was dismissed from the office*. 7. Mr. Allan will be at your door *before*

you are ready. 8. All will be well *at the time at which* he returns.
9. They listened *at the time at which* he sang.

Clauses used as **Objective** elements:

1. All said *that love had suffered wrong.* 2. The fires of the bivouac destroyed *what* (that which) *the artillery had spared.*
3. His favorite son said, "*You must give me back my father.*" 4. His father replied, "*You may do as (that which) you please.*"

Punctuation.—*The first word of a direct quotation must begin with a capital and the quotation must be separated from the rest of the sentence by commas and by quotation marks.*

Clauses used as **Adjective** elements:

2. The steamer, Florida, *which fell a prey to the cruel waves,* had made many journeys across the ocean. 2. There is a limit *beyond which forbearance is not a virtue.* 3. Not one of the authors *who mention the incident,* has a correct knowledge of it. 4. They best can bear reproof, *who merit praise.*

Clauses used as the **Subjects** of sentences:

3. *That I have been deceived* is evident. 2. *That he is not your friend* appears probable. 3. "*Who are you?*" was the question. 4. "*I am a dangerous man,*" was the reply. 5. "*Whom the gods love (they) die young,*" is said of you. 6. *Who the old gentleman was,* was a matter of curiosity.

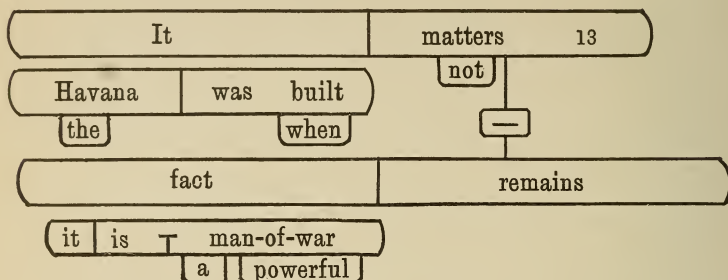
Clauses used as **Predicates** of sentences:

1. One of his favorite maxims was, *keep your own secrets.* 2. Now the question is, *who committed the deed?* 3. The reply of the Lord Chief Justice was, "*Deliver it to the King.*" 4. The answer was, "*Where is the King.*"

Clauses used as **Appositives**:

1. It was now a matter of curiosity, *who the old gentleman was.*
2. I am quite sure (of the fact) *that Mr. Butler drove by the Court-house this morning.* 3. It is certain *that you have deceived me.*
4. The assumption *that our cause is declining* is utterly false.

"It matters not when the Havana was built, the fact remains, it is a powerful man-of-war."



In this sentence the subject, **it**, is modified by the clause, **when the Havana was built**, an appositive; and the subject **fact**, is modified by the clause, **it is a powerful man-of-war**, an appositive.

Clauses used as elements of all kinds:

1. It matters not when the book was written the fact remains, it is a very excellent work. 2. Mr. Brown completed what (that which) his companions attempted. 3. The truth is we are heartily tired of the whole affair. 4. The fact that we have a glorious country is impressive to the average Englishman. 5. When they will return to the city is still a matter of doubt. 6. My books as well as my stationery are gone. 7. He is not only good, but also brave. 8. Geo. W. Peabody was both a public benefactor and a good citizen. 9. You must either go or send a messenger. 10. I am as old as you are. 11. It came from over the sea. 12. This noun is in the nominative case according to a rule of syntax. 13. He held the property contrary to law. 14. You may have this instead of that. 15. My knife was taken out of the drawer. 16. The pointer stands over against the wall. 17. He said that he would call. 18. There were no provisions in the settlement. 19. Now, then, are you ready? 20. Indeed, and what do you want?

Questions.—What is the difference between a complex and a compound sentence? What is an adjective element? An objective element? Subordinate conjunctions are used in what kind of sentences? What conjunctions are used in pairs? Are correlative conjunctions treated as a single word in the analysis? What are words of euphony? Name two words which are frequently used as subjects of sentences. Name two that are sometimes used as appositives.

PRONOUN and ANTECEDENT.

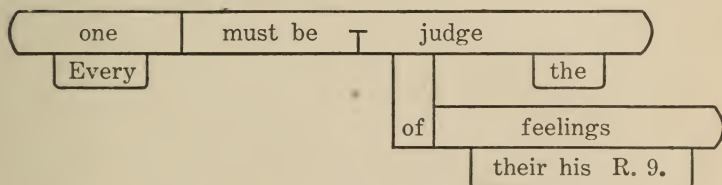
A **Pronoun** is a word that stands for some noun called its antecedent, as The *captain*, what can I say of *him*?

The **Antecedent** of a pronoun is the noun for which the pronoun stands.

Remark.—Every pronoun is governed by two rules: one for its *case* and the other for its *gender*, *person* and *number*. Page 84.

Analyse and correct the following sentences:

“Every one must be the judge of their own feelings.”



Their has the subject, **one**, for its antecedent, it is therefore singular and should have the singular form, **his**. “Every one must be the judge of his own feelings.”

RULE 9. Pronouns must agree with their antecedents in number.

1. The Persian took native clothing and gave them to Polo.
2. Every one of the soldiers should obey their commander.
3. None of the candidates can, with propriety, recommend themselves.
4. The convention was unanimous in their action.
5. The gathering was so dense that we could not go through them.
6. Every one of the soldiers should follow the instructions of their commander.
7. We have received some news from Cuba and they are discouraging.

22. INFINITIVES.

The **Infinitive** is a form of the verb that may be used as a *noun*, an *adjective*, or an *adverb*. It may usually be known by the sign, *to*, placed before it. The infinitive does *not* agree with its subject in number and person.

EXAMPLES.

As subjects—nouns:

To play is pleasant. *To err* is human. *To steal* is sinful. *To strive* is our duty. *To labor* is the lot of man.

As objects—nouns:

Horace wanted *to go*. His brother desired *to stay*. He desires *to speak*. We tried *to retreat*.

As adverbial modifiers—adverbs:

The boys went to the river *to fish*. He is gone to the field *to work*. We endeavored *to act*. The speaker proceeded *to explain*.

As adjective modifiers—adjectives:

A desire *to steal* is a mania with some people. He has withdrawn his challenge *to fight*. He has a faculty *to write*. They made an effort *to escape*.

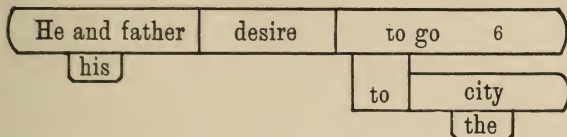
Remark.—The infinitive is sometimes used as a part of a Transitive Verb; as, "In the play he *was to imagine* that his father was dead."

The sign, **to**, is sometimes omitted. This generally occurs after such words as *bid*, *dare*, *hear*, *feel*, *let*, *make*, *need*, *see*, etc.

We saw him (x) *fall*. They bade him (x) *depart*. George heard them (x) *call*. His father made him (x) *go* to school. He felt the fish (x) *nibble* at the hook. We saw the vessel (x) *sail*.

Analyze the sentences given under this topic repeatedly:

"He and his father desire to go to the city."



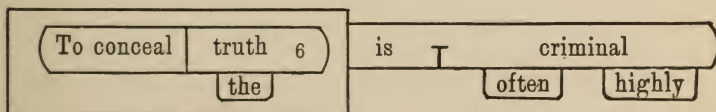
"He and is father desire to go to the city" is a sentence; declarative; simple. **He** and **father** are the subjects; **desire** is the predicate. The subject, **father**, is modified by **his**, an adjective element; the predicate, **desire**, is modified by the infinitive, **to go**, an objective element; **to go** is modified by the phrase, **to the city**, an adverbial element; and **city** is modified by **the**, an adjective element.

1. The children want to go to the park. 2. I would like to run home. 3. George desires to go with his father to the Exposition. 4. The boy and his companion wanted to catch the owl. 5. The prisoner tried to escape. 6. His companions wanted to run. 7. The owl undertook to fly.

The **Infinitive Phrase** is a combination of the infinitive with one or more other words from which it cannot be separated without destroying the meaning. Like the infinitive, itself, it may be used as a **noun**, an **adjective** or an **adverb**.

As subjects—nouns.

"To conceal the truth is often highly criminal."



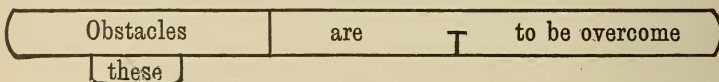
"To conceal the truth is often highly criminal" is a sentence; declarative; simple. The infinitive phrase, **to conceal the truth**, is the subject; **criminal** is the predicate; **is** is the copula. The infinitive, **to conceal**, is modified by **truth**, an objective element; **truth** is modified by **the**, an adjective element; **criminal** is modified by **often** and **highly**, adverbial elements.

1. To see the sun is pleasant. 2. To do his duty should be the desire of every man. 3. To read a good book is a great pleasure. 4. To conquer the world was the ambition of Alexander the Great. 5. To control the crowned heads of the Continent was the desire of Napoleon Bonaparte. 6. To serve his country faithfully is the duty of every citizen. 7. To aid the weak is an act of charity.

Remark.—The pupils should be required to reconstruct the sentences presented at each recitation, so as to give as many different expressions as possible to the same thought. Thus: To conceal the truth is often highly criminal; concealing the truth is often highly criminal; that a person should conceal the truth is often highly criminal.

As predicates—adjectives.

“These obstacles are to be overcome.”

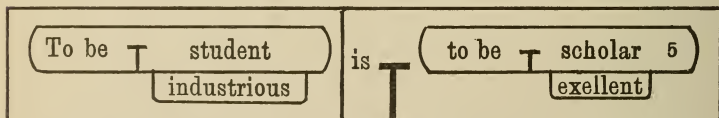


“These obstacles are to be overcome” is a sentence; declarative; simple. **Obstacles** is the subject; the infinitive phrase, **to be overcome**, is the predicate; **are** is the copula. **Obstacles** is modified by **these**, an adjective element.

1. His command is to be obeyed. 2. The rules of school are to be observed. 3. His work is to be done. 4. The factory is yet to be built. 5. He is to go to school. 6. The book is yet to be written.

As subjects and predicates.

“To be an industrious student is to be an excellent scholar.”



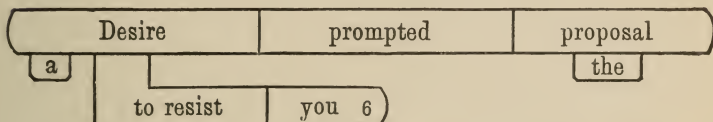
The infinitive phrase, **to be an industrious student**, is the subject; the infinitive phrase, **to be an excellent scholar**, is the predicate; **is** is the copula. **Student** is modified by **an** and **industrious**, adjective elements; **scholar** is modified by **an** and **excellent**, adjective elements. (See page 51.)

RULE 5.—A noun or pronoun used independently is in the nominative absolute case.

1. To be a good man is to be a happy man. 2. To be good is to be happy. 3. To be industrious is to be successful. 4. To be noble in spirit is to be great in deed. 5. To be insincere is to be dishonest. 6. Being sincere is being honest. 7. To destroy a man's prospects is to blight a man's hopes.

As adjective modifiers—adjectives.

"A desire to resist you prompted the proposal."

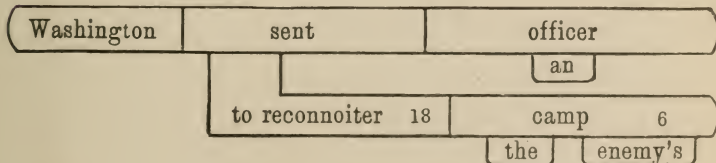


"A desire to resist you prompted the proposal" is a sentence; declarative; simple. **Desire** is the subject; **prompted** is the predicate. The subject, **desire**, is modified by **a**, an adjective element, and by the infinitive phrase, **to resist you**, an adjective element; the infinitive, **to resist**, is modified by **you**, an objective element; the predicate, **prompted**, is modified by **proposal**, an objective element; **proposal** is modified by **the**, an adjective element.

1. We should make efforts to improve. 2. I have permission to go. 3. A determination to conquer inspired him. 4. His willingness to be just in the matter, was apparent to all.

As adverbial modifiers—adverbs.

"Washington sent an officer to reconnoiter the enemy's camp."

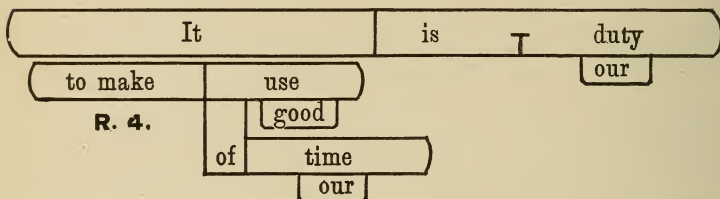


"Washington sent an officer to reconnoiter the enemy's camp" is a sentence; declarative; simple. **Washington** is the subject; **sent** is the predicate. The predicate, **sent**, is modified by **officer**, an objective element, and by the infinitive phrase, **to reconnoiter the enemy's camp**, an adverbial element; the infinitive, **to reconnoiter**, is modified by **camp**, an objective element, and **camp** is modified by **the** and **enemy's**, adjective elements.

1. We are prepared to act. 2. We are prepared for action. 3. William was invited to attend lectures. 4. I am to settle this business. 5. We are ready to depart. 6. Mr. W. H. Walker was too late to take the cars.

As appositives—nouns.

“It is our duty to make good use of our time.”

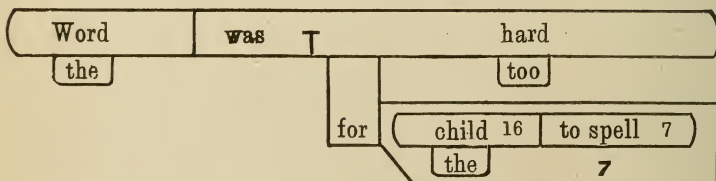


It is the subject; **duty** is the predicate; **is** is the copula. **It** is modified by the infinitive phrase, **to make good use of our time**, an appositive; **to make** is modified by **use**, an objective element.

1. It is easy to be deceived. 2. It has been my desire to go with you. 3. It is wicked to deceive the innocent. 4. It is wrong to excite false hopes.

As objects of prepositions—nouns.

“The word was too hard for the child to spell.”



The predicate, **hard**, is modified by the phrase, **for the child to spell**. The preposition, **for**, has for its object the infinitive phrase, **the child to spell**.

Child is the subject of the infinitive, **to spell**, therefore it is in the objective case, R. 16.

RULE 16.—The subject of an infinitive is in the objective case.

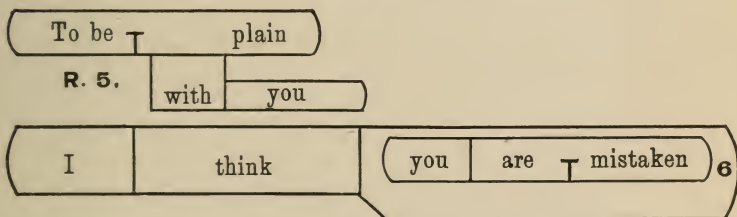
The phrase, **the child to spell**, considered as one word (a noun) is the object of the preposition, **for**, R. 7.

1. The cake is too rich for the children to eat. 2. Those boxes were too heavy for the man to carry. 3. The child was about to spill the ink. 4. That window is about to fall on your fingers.

Remark.—Such constructions as, **to be plain with you**, in the following sentence, are considered independent, though they generally carry with them a modifying force.

As independent phrases.

“To be plain with you, I think you are mistaken.”



The infinitive phrase, **to be plain with you**, is used independently, that is, it is used as a noun in the nominative case absolute. **I** is the subject; **think** is the predicate, and is modified by the clause, **you are mistaken**, an objective element;

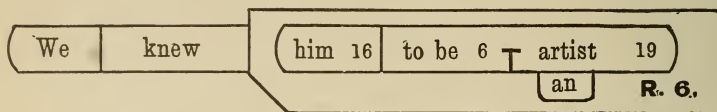
The clause, **you are mistaken**, is used as a noun in the objective case, R. 6.

1. To be frank with you, it is only a report. 2. To be honest with you, he told me nothing. 3. And to be plain with you, I think you are the more unreasonable of the two. 4. To tell the truth, I was inattentive. 5. To answer you candidly, I am of French extraction. 6. To decide finally, they must not go. 7. To end the matter, use your own judgment.

Punctuation.—*Transposed and parenthetical words, phrases and clauses are usually set off by commas; as, Doubtless, this man is guilty.*

As objects of transitive verbs—**nouns**.

“We knew him to be an artist.”



“We knew him to be an artist” is a sentence; declarative; simple. **We** is the subject; **knew** is the predicate, and is modified by the infinitive phrase, **him to be an artist**, an objective element. Of the phrase, **him** is the subject; **to be** is the infinitive; **artist** is the predicate, and is modified by **an**, an adjective element.

Him is in the objective case, subject of the infinitive, **to be**, R. 16.

Artist is a noun used as the predicate after the copulative verb, **to be**, therefore it is in the objective case to agree with **him**, R. 19.

RULE 19.—The verb, *to be*, takes the same case after it as before.

Remark.—It will be noticed that, in import, this rule is identical with Rule 2.

1. I believe him to be an honest man. 2. I believe that he is an honest man. 3. He commanded the prisoner to be bound. 4. He commanded the horse to be saddled. 5. They confessed themselves to be in fault. 6. We discovered him to be a sailor.

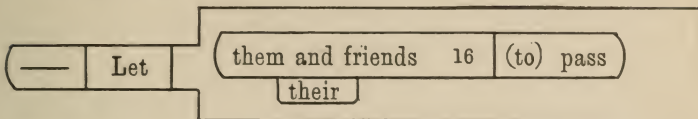
The infinitive, *to be*, is frequently understood. This construction is sometimes called the **double object**.

1. They appointed him (to be) president. 2. We elected Henry (to be) captain. 3. Samuel anointed David (to be) king. 4. They named him (to be) John. 5. God called the firmament (to be) Heaven. 6. The saints proclaim thee (to be) king.

Punctuation.—The dash is used to denote a sudden interruption, or hesitation of the speaker, or an abrupt change in the sentence.

Analyze and correct the following sentences repeatedly:

"Let them and their friends pass."



They is a pronoun, used as the subject of the infinitive, (to) **pass**, therefore it is in the objective case, Rule 16, and should have the objective form, *them*.

"Let them and their friends pass" is a sentence; imperative; simple. **Thou** or **you** understood is the subject; **let** is the predicate and it is modified by the infinitive phrase, **them and their friends (to) pass**, an objective element.

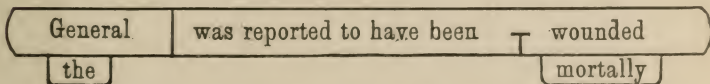
Remark.—The subject of an imperative sentence is sometimes understood. (See page 27.)

1 Your cousin wanted Albert and I to go with him to the country. 2. The court declared he and his brother to be insane. 3. The teacher heard John and I recite. 4. They have requested you and I to remain. 5. I heard she and Lulu sing. 6. The officers commanded he and his companion to report at once. 7. I saw he and Henry run. 8. Their leader ordered they and their friends to retire.

2. Those who he invited to sing declined. 2. The conductor asked him and I to step on the car. 3. I will make he and his brother regret their folly. 4. He invited her mother and she to take seats. 5. The sentinel will not let they who have not the countersign, pass. 6. We were hearing she and her sister recite some verses from Virgil.

Analyze the following sentences repeatedly.

"The general was reported to have been mortally wounded."

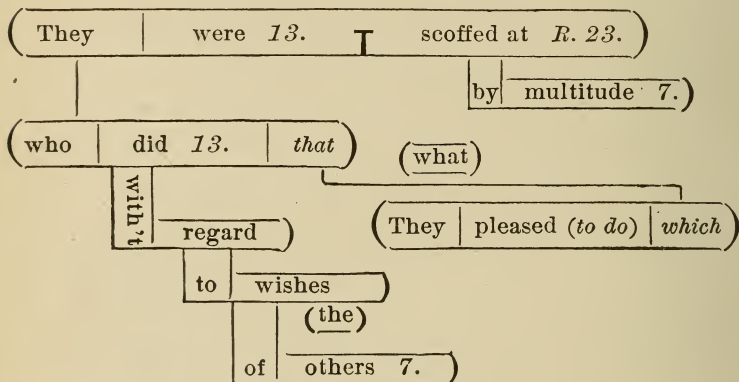


General is the subject; **was reported to have been** is the *strengthened copula*; **wounded** is the predicate.

1. The lake is said to be one hundred miles long. 2. The lake

is one hundred miles long. 3. The boy *appears to be* ill. 4. The boy is ill. 5. The animal *is reported to be* a wolf. 6. The prisoner *has been declared to be* innocent. 7. The detective *was to appear* inattentive. 8. That venerable old gentleman *seems to be* their leader. 9. The criminal *was declared to be* insane. 10. The steamer *was supposed to have been* lost in the storm. 11. The messenger *was known to have been* detained. 12. The messenger was detained.

“They who did *what* they pleased without regard to the rights of others were scoffed at by the multitude.”



They is the subject of the principal sentence; **were** is the copula; **scoffed at** is the predicate. The subject, **they**, is modified by the double clause, **who did what they pleased**, which is equivalent to **who did that which they pleased**.

The phrase, **scoffed at**, is used as an adjective in the predicate modifying the subject, **they**, Rule 23.

1. To be able to read well is a valuable accomplishment. 2. A constant purpose to excel marked his whole career. 3. William has been making efforts to improve in speaking. 4. He arrives in time to give his vote. 5. That is the business next to be done. 6. He who does as he pleases, without regard to the wishes of others, will soon cease to do well. 7. Every man desires to live long, but no man would be old. 8. The man who does *as* (that)

he pleases (to do which) without regard to the wishes of others, will soon cease to do well. 9. To be honest with you, I think you (to be) (are) the most unreasonable of them all.

2. To shirk one's duty is, to say the least, unmanly. 2. The children went to see the show. 3. They remained to see their friends. 4. We stopped to see the consul. 5. That green fruit is not good to eat. 6. To spend precious time foolishly is unwise. 7. To be industrious is to be prosperous. 8. To be satisfied with the little that we have is to be sufficiently wealthy.

3. It is easy to deceive children. 2. It is pleasant to receive our friends. 3. It is wrong to hate our enemies. 4. To be plain with you, I think you the most unreasonable of them all. 5. For you to command is for us to obey. 6. It was to have been mine. 7. It ought to have been given to me. 8. To open the discussion, I hold that art is more beautiful than nature. 9. To put it pointedly, that man told a falsehood. 10. To quote, "The fear of the Lord is the beginning of wisdom."

ORDER FOR MONEY.

Chicago, Aug. 1, 1889.

Mr. C. L. Duncan,

Please pay John Sanford, or order, Five and 25/100 Dollars, and charge to my account.

Charles Henderson.

Questions.—What is an infinitive? An infinitive phrase? What is a prepositional phrase? After what words is the sign, **to**, omitted in the infinitive? The subject of an infinitive is in what case? Is the infinitive, **to be**, ever understood? What are such constructions sometimes called? What is an imperative sentence? (See page 27.) What sentences have subjects sometimes understood? How do you distinguish a clause or subordinate sentence from an infinitive phrase? What elements are necessary in the structure of a clause or sentence? *Subject and predicate.* In the ninth sentence, first paragraph above, **all** is generally considered an adjective modifying **them**; why not call it an appositive identifying **them**, R. 4? In the same sentence, which would you supply, **to be** or **are**? Name the words of euphony found in the sentences in the third paragraph above.

23. PARTICIPLES.

The Participle is a form of the verb that may be used as a *noun* or an *adjective*. It generally ends in *ing*, *ed*, or *en*.

EXAMPLES FOR ANALYSIS:

As subjects and objects—nouns.

1. Flying tires the duck. 2. Rowing is delightful. 3. His playing is magnificent. 4. Samuel loves reading. 5. He delights in writing letters. 6. They cheered him for winning the race. 7. He was hurt by falling. 8. George delights in riding his pony.

As adjective modifiers—adjectives.

1. The rain is *falling*. 2. The wheel was *broken* by the accident. 3. The soldier was *wounded* by a ball. 4. They were quickly *dispersed*. 5. He will repair the *broken* machine. 6. Julian was hurt by a *falling* stone. 7. They will be *pleased* to see you. 8. The officer had been *wounded* in battle.

Remark.—The copulative verb and the participle which follows it should be treated separately. The idea contained in the two words, however, is often modified by an adverb or a phrase. (See page 21.)

Participles and Infinitives are often used as parts of **transitive verbs**. In such cases the combination must be taken together as *one word*, and treated as a transitive verb.

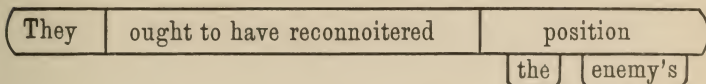
Examples.—The soldiers *had been resting* their horses by the roadside. 2. The actor *was to imagine* that his father was dead. 3. The boys *have been studying* their lessons. 4. The infantry *was to have held* the mountain pass. 5. Storms *have been destroying* the crops. 6. The commander *was planning* the attack. 7. The merchant *ought to have sold* the goods.

Punctuation.—When a verb is omitted to avoid repetition, its place is usually supplied by a comma.

Examples.—One murder makes a villain; millions, a hero. 2. War is the law of violence; peace, the law of love.

Analyze the following sentences repeatedly, using this as a model:

"They ought to have reconnoitered the enemy's position."



They is the subject; **ought to have reconnoitered** is the predicate and is modified by **position**, an objective element.

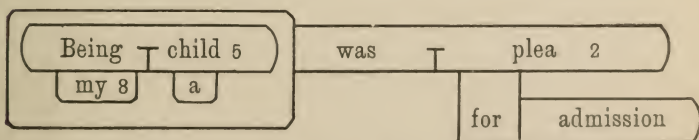
1. The printers *ought to be doing* their work. 2. Walter *ought to have been preparing* his lesson. 3. They *were to have been painting* the house. 4. They *were painting* the house. 5. Henry *should have prepared* his lesson. 6. I *ought to have received* my share of the work. 7. They *could have taken* the fort by storm. 8. You *must have seen* him on the street.

24. PARTICIPIAL PHRASES.

The **Participial Phrase** is a combination of the participle with one or more other words from which it cannot be separated without destroying the meaning. The phrase is used as a *noun*, as an *adjective*, or as an *adverb*.

As subjects of sentences—**nouns**.

"My being a child was a plea for my admission."



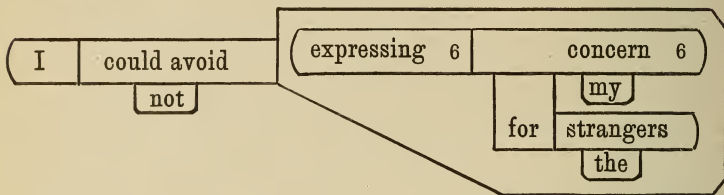
The participial phrase, **my being a child**, is the subject; **plea** is the predicate; **was** is the copula. **Being** is modified by **my**, an adjective element; **child** is modified by **a**, an adjective element.

1. His being a friend of yours was sufficient. 2. Our being Americans gave us the freedom of the town on that occasion. 3. Their being too intimate with the commander of the fort led

to the discovery of the plot. 4. Your being a member of the order will be of advantage to you.

As objects of transitive verbs—nouns.

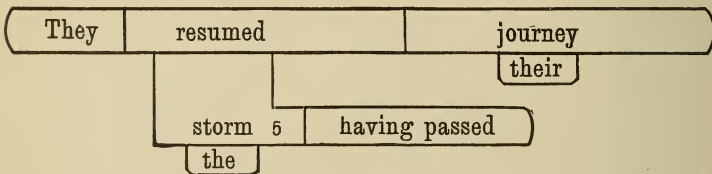
“I could not avoid expressing my concern for the stranger.”



1. I cannot help remarking the resemblance between him and our author. 2. They enjoyed witnessing the various displays. 3. The proprietors favored running the machinery by steam. 4. Rachel has stopped studying music for the present. 5. I dislike attending public receptions.

As adverbial modifiers—adverbs.

“The storm having passed away, they resumed their journey.”



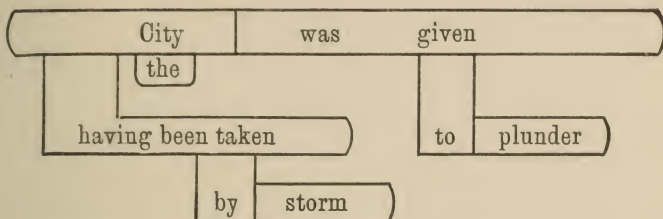
“The storm having passed, they resumed their journey,” is a sentence; declarative; simple. **They** is the subject; **resumed** is the predicate, and is modified by **journey**, an objective element, and by the participial phrase, the **storm having passed**, an adverbial element.

Remark.—The participle is sometimes composed of two or more words. **Having passed**, in the diagram above, is an example of this kind.

1. The factory having closed, the men returned to their homes. 2. The war being ended, the soldiers were disbanded. 3. The weary wanderers rested, their journey having been completed.

As adjective modifiers—Adjectives.

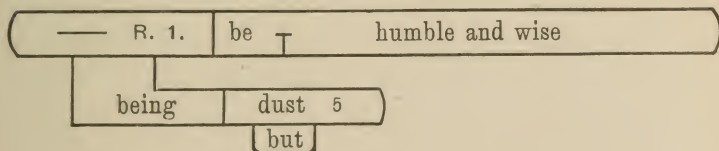
"The city having been taken by storm, was given up to plunder."



"The city having been taken by storm, was given up to plunder," is a sentence; declarative; simple. The subject, **city**, is modified by the participial phrase, **having been taken by storm**, an adjective element.

1. The burglar, captured in the act of stealing, was punished for the crime. 2. That famous old corporation, having been overwhelmed with indebtedness, was dissolved. 3. That street, having been paved with granite, is now a magnificent thoroughfare.

"Being but dust, be humble and wise."



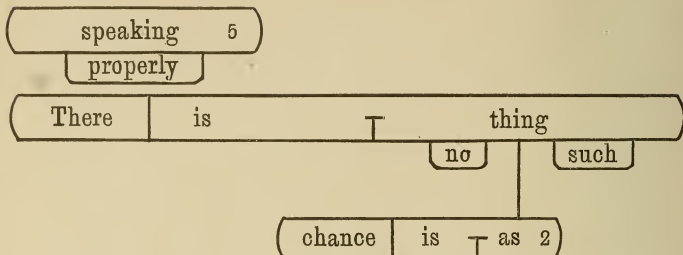
"Being but dust, be humble and wise," is a sentence; imperative; simple; **Thou** or **you** understood is the subject; **be** is the copula; **humble and wise** are the predicates. The subject is modified by the participial phrase, **being but dust**, an adjective element. (See page 27.)

1. Being innocent of the crime, be firm and confident. 2. Being in moderate circumstances, be industrious and honest. 3. Being an American, you should defend your country. 4. Being in good circumstances, be contented and happy.

Remark.—In **imperative** sentences the subject is generally wanting—understood.

As independent phrases.

“Properly speaking, there is no such thing as chance.”



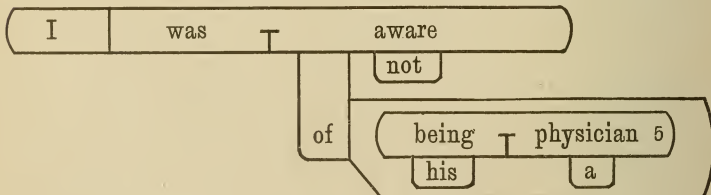
In this sentence the participle, **speaking**, is used independently.

1. This conduct, viewing it in the most favorable light, reflects discredit on his character. 2. Generally speaking, few men attain worldly greatness. 3. The movements of the enemy, viewing them from the stand-point of a general, were, to say the least, graceful.

Remark.—Such constructions as the participial phrases, **viewing it in the most favorable light**, **generally speaking** and **viewing them from the stand-point of a general**, are regarded as independent. They do, however carry with them a modifying force.

As objects of prepositions—nouns.

“I was not aware of his being a physician.”



I is the subject; **aware** is the predicate; **was** is the copula. The predicate, **aware**, is modified by **not**, an adverbial element, and by the phrase, **of his being a physician**, an adverbial element; **being** is modified by **his**, an adjective element; **physician**, by **a**, an adjective.

1. I had not been informed of his being a member. 2. We have

not been notified of their being selected. 3. His brother was fined for driving rapidly over the bridge. 4. For doing so much mischief they were banished from the town. 5. He could not be dissuaded from speaking the truth.

EXERCISES.

To be analyzed:

1. He stood leaning on his spade and gazing at the brightness in the west. 2. They could not avoid expressing their sympathy for the prisoner. 3. Endeavoring to escape, he fell. 4. The men were engaged in cutting wood. 5. Your being a subject of the Queen of England will be of advantage to you. 6. Being pressed by conflicting interests, they avoided telling what (that which) they knew of the accident. 7. The little boy could not be terrified into telling what he knew. 8. When they were pressed by conflicting interests, they avoided telling what they knew. 9. When Elizabeth was queen Bacon was lord chancellor. 10. When (during the time during which) we were detained by the enemy we discovered their (his) plans. 11. The boys took whatever (that which) they found. 12. You may call whoever (him whom) you see.

21. NOMINATIVE ABSOLUTE.

The **Nominative Absolute Case** is the use of a noun independent of any governing word.

When a noun or pronoun is not in any other case, it is put in the Nominative Absolute Case. The several distinct conditions under which this occurs are:

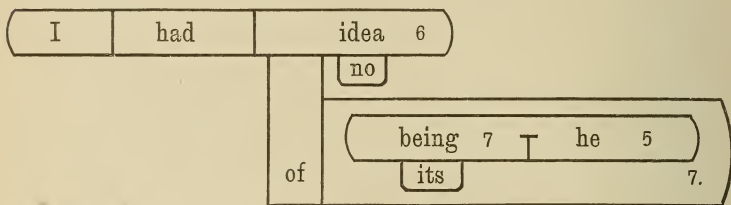
1. *By mere exclamation*; as, Oh the folly of sin!
2. *By pleonasm*; as, Your brother, he shall be detained. Your father, where is he? And the Prophets, do they live forever?
3. *By direct address*; as Charles, your brother calls you.
4. *With a participle*; as, My being a child, was a plea for my admission. The sun approaching, the snow melts away.
5. *With an infinitive*; as, To be an industrious student is to be an excellent scholar.

RULE 5. A noun or pronoun used independently is in the nominative absolute case (and should have the nominative form).

Explanation.—The noun or pronoun which is said to be used independently with a participle, is what may be considered the subject of the participle or the predicate following a participle from the verb, to be.

Analyze and correct the following sentences, using this as a model:

“I had no idea of its being *him*.”



“I had no idea of its being *him*.” **Him** is a pronoun used independently with a participle, therefore it is in the nominative absolute case, R. 5, and should have the nominative form, *he*. (See page 51.)

1. *Him* being seen, they fled. 2. You did not know of its being *me*. 3. *Us* having returned, they rejoiced. 4. They had not been informed of its being *her*. 5. *Me* being present, they soon retired. 6. Oh, happy *us*! who are thus blessed. 7. *Him* being rich, they feared his influence. 8. “*Thee* too! Brutus, my son,” cried Cæsar. 9. Its being *me*, had much to do with his decision in the matter. 10. *Him* that formed the eye, can he not see? 11. Its being *her* made no difference.

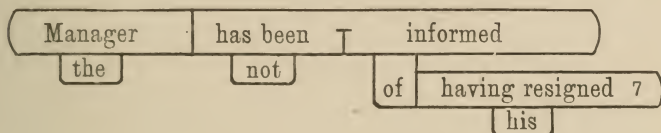
Participles and Infinitives, even where used as nouns, are modified by adverbial elements, not by adjective elements.

Exception.—A **Participle** may be modified by a noun or pronoun in the **Possessive** case; as “*My* being a child was a plea for my admission.” “I had not been informed of *John’s* having returned.” The nouns and pronouns in such cases are called **adjective elements**. (See diagram, page 63.)

Remark.—In such constructions the nominative and objective forms are often improperly used for the possessive.

Correct the following sentences, using this as a model:

“The manager has not been informed of *him* having resigned.”



Him is a pronoun used to modify the participle, **having resigned**, therefore it is in the possessive case, R. S. and should have the possessive form, *his*. The manager has not been informed of his having resigned.

RULE 8. A noun or pronoun used to modify a participle is in the possessive case (and should have the possessive form).

1. Did you not hear of *me* being there? 2. *Him* being a for-
eigner was the cause of his expulsion from the town. 3. We
have heard of *him* going to the falls. 4. I doubted *him* having
been a soldier. 5. Mr. Ward objected to his *son* joining the army.
6. A fair wind is the cause of a *vessel* sailing. 7. He opposed *me*
going to college. 8. He had no idea of *me* being there. 9. The
sentinel was alarmed by the *clock* striking. 10. Our *boat* sinking
threw us upon the mercy of the waves.

2. The train leaving the depot before the appointed time
caused us to remain at home. 2. I am not afraid of Willie going
into the water. 3. His father was alarmed at him doing so. 4.
There is no necessity of me going home now. 5. They being too
intimate with the commander of the fort, led to the discovery of
the plot. 6. I had not been informed of him being a member.
7. We being Americans gave us the freedom of the town. 8. You
being a member of the order will be of advantage to you.

Questions.—Is a participle ever used as part of a verb? A complete verb
may be composed of how many words? What is meant by a noun used inde-
pendently with a participle? Give six examples. In the expression “A friend
of yours,” what rule for **yours**? What is a possessive pronoun? (Page 82).
Participles and infinitives are modified by what class of elements?

25. SUBJUNCTIVE CLAUSES.

The **Subjunctive Clause** is used to express a *condition*, a *doubt*, a *wish*, a *motive*, a *supposition*, or a *possibility*. This clause represents an **ideal act** or a **real act** placed under a condition of more or less doubt.

Explanation.—This clause is found in complex sentences, and it is joined to the verb of the principal sentence by such conjunctions as *if*, *though*, *unless*, *except*, *lest*, *that*, *until*, *provided that*, *whether*, etc. These conjunctions are called the **Signs of the Subjunctive**, and many of them may be substituted for the word, *if*, in the following table:

SUBJUNCTIVE FORMS.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.	SINGULAR.
If I be	If we be	If I were	If we were	If I write
If thou be	If you be	If thou wert	If you were	If thou write
If he be	If they be	If he were	If they were	If he write

INDICATIVE FORMS.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.	SINGULAR.
I am	We are	I was	We were	I write
Thou art	You are	Thou wast	You were	Thou writest
He is	They are	He was	They were	He writes

Remark.—Nearly all the verbs in the language correspond in form, so far as termination is concerned, to the verb, **write**: He *writes*; they *write*; if he *write*. He *loves*; they *love*; if he *love*. He *comes*; they *come*; if he *come*.

Remark.—The **Subjunctive** form of the verb is used in *subjunctive clauses*. The **Indicative** form is used in *declarative*, and *interrogative sentences*.

Punctuation.—*Transposed and parenthetical words, phrases, and clauses are usually set off by commas.*

EXERCISES.

To be analyzed:

1. If this *be* true, all will end well. 1. *Had* I time, I would aid you. 3. If I had time, I would aid you. 4. *Were* I a king, I would be generous. 5. If I *were* a king, I would be generous. 6. *Were* he honest, he would pay me. 7. *Had* I *been* there, I should have seen him. 8. If he study, he will excel. 9. *Were* I not Alexander, I would *be* Diogenes. 10. The commander suggested that the town *be taken* by storm. 11. The king is anxious that the army *be* developed and strengthened. 12. Go with the understanding that one hundred men *be* admitted with you. 13. I should not go if I *were* you. 14. Though he *leave* me alone, I shall not be afraid. 15. Remain until he *come*.

2. Withdraw thy foot from thy neighbor's house, lest he weary of thee. 2. Though he drive me from his door, yet I will not desert him. 3. Unless he return, he will lose a fine opportunity. 4. If I were you, I would not go. 5. Unless you go, I will not stay. 6. Though he slay me, yet will I trust him. 7. If it be proper, do it. 8. If he promise, he will reform. 9. If I were now as strong as I was a year ago, I would begin the work at once. 10. If he but touch the hills, they will smoke. 11. Would that I were he. 12. I wish that he were you. 13. It is our desire that he go without further delay. 14. Oh that he were here! 15. Provided that he come in time, I will remain. 16. You may stay during the summer, whether I be there or not.

Remark.—Like many other things in the science of language, a knowledge of the subjunctive clause and the verb in the subjunctive mode must be acquired from experience in the analysis of sentences containing such constructions, not by memorizing definitions and explanations.

RULE 17. In Subjunctive Clauses the plural form of the verb is generally used, even with singular subjects.

EXERCISES.

To be corrected:

1. If this *is* true, all will end well. 2. *Was* I a king, I would be generous. 3. Though he *drives* me from his door, yet will I cling to him. 4. I wish I *was* in power, I would teach him a les-

son. 5. If it *is* proper, do so. 6. If he *promises* he will reform. 7. I wish I *was* a scholar. 8. Unless he *returns*, he will lose a fine opportunity. 9. Unless the miller *grinds* the corn, we will have no meal. 10. Make peace with him lest he *destroys* thee. 11. It is decreed that he *is* banished from his native land. 12. Justice demands that he *dies* for the crime. 13. It is my desire that he *goes* home to-day. 14. The king commanded that the town *should be taken* by storm.

26. CLASSES OF NOUNS.

Nouns are divided into two principal classes: **Common, Proper.**

A **common noun** is a *general* or *class* name.

Examples.—*Door, bird, house, gold, water, paper, pencil.*

A **collective noun** is a common noun denoting a collection of individuals considered as forming one whole or body.

Examples.—*Army, committee, assembly, swarm, jury, club, company.*

Explanation.—When a collective noun denotes the collection as *one body*, which is generally the case, the verb which follows it must be singular; as, “The *company was* large.” Here we do not mean that the persons composing the company were large.

A **proper noun** is a *special* or *individual* name.

Examples.—*Julian, Bismarck, Andrew Jackson, Boston, Canada.*

Capitals.—*All proper nouns should begin with capitals.*

27. PROPERTIES OF NOUNS.

Gender is a distinction of nouns and pronouns with regard to sex.

The **Masculine** gender denotes males.

Examples.—*Man, father, prince, governor, lad, master, king, emperor.*

The **Feminine** gender denotes females.

Examples.—*Woman, mother, princess, governess, lass, mistress, queen.*

The **Common** gender denotes **either** males or females.

Examples.—*Children, parent, bird, cousin, teacher, assistant.*

The **Neuter** gender denotes **neither** males nor females.

Examples.—*City, knife, tree, house, smartness, stupidity, frost, winter.*

Person is that property of noun or pronoun which distinguishes the **speaker**, the person **spoken to**, and the person or object **spoken of**.

The **First** person denotes the *speaker*.

Examples.—"I, Henry, was with him." "Give it to me, your cousin."

The **Second** person denotes the person *spoken to*.

Examples.—"William, I have a letter for you."

Punctuation.—Names of persons spoken to should be separated from the rest of the sentence by a comma.

The **Third** person denotes the person or object *spoken of*.

Examples.—*Pedro gave the boy a book and some pens.*

Number is the property of the noun which shows whether *one* or *more than one* is spoken of.

The **Singular Number** is used when only *one* object is meant; as, *boy, man, hat, river.*

The **Plural Number** is used when *two, several* or *many* objects are meant; as, *boys, men, hats, rivers.*

Suggestion.—Write on the blackboard the following outline and use it as an order of parsing nouns. By referring to the definitions the pupils will learn the meaning of the terms used.

ORDER OF PARSING THE NOUN.

NOUN.	CLASS.	GENDER.	PERSON.	NUMBER.	CASE.	R.
	Common	Masculine	First	Singular	Nominative	
	Proper	Feminine	Second	Plural	Possessive	
		Neuter.	Third		Objective	
		Common				

MODELS FOR PARSING.

1. "William, Henry's lesson is prepared."

William . . . is a *noun; proper; masculine; second; singular; nominative absolute case*, it is the name of a person addressed. Rule 5.

Henry's . . . is a *noun; proper; masculine gender; third person; singular number; possessive case*, it denotes possession, and modifies **lesson**. Rule 3.

2. The Greeks took Troy by stratagem.

Greeks *noun; proper; masculine; third; plural; subject of the verb, took, therefore, nominative case*. Rule 1.

Troy *noun; proper; neuter; third; singular; object of the verb, took; objective*. Rule 6.

Stratagem . . *noun; common; neuter; third; singular; object of the preposition, by; objective*. Rule 7.

3. Victor Hugo, the famous French author, is dead.

Victor Hugo . *noun; proper; masculine; third; singular; subject of verb, is; nominative*. Rule 1.

Author *noun; common; masculine; third; singular; in apposition with Victor Hugo; nominative*. Rule 4.

St. Louis, Mo., Sept. 8, 1887.

Dear Friend:—

This will be handed you by Mr. W. H. Road, a particular friend of mine, who visits your town on business. Any attention you can show him will be considered by me a personal favor.

Very truly,

Walter Hammond.

Gentlemen,--

Permit me to introduce to you the bearer, Mr. Ayers Strange, a prominent coal dealer of Memphis, who will spend a few days in your city. Having known him for many years, I am prepared to vouch for him in every way. Do what you can to promote his interests in business circles, and you will confer a lasting favor upon

Your Friend,

Elmer Lee, M. D.

4. *Columbus* crossed the *Atlantic* with ninety *men*.

Columbus . . *noun; proper; masculine; third; singular; subject of the verb, crossed; nominative.* Rule 1.

Atlantic . . . *noun; proper; neuter; third; singular; object of the verb, crossed; objective.* Rule 6.

Men *noun; common; masculine; third; plural; object of the preposition, with; objective.* Rule 7.

Suggestion.—The words on page 77 should be treated as a very important lesson in spelling. Both the singular and the plural forms together with the meaning of the words should be thoroughly learned before doing the work on this page.

Parse the nouns and correct the verbs in the following sentences:

1. The news of fearful disasters have arrived. 2. The scissors is on the table. 3. The first series of entertainments are over. 4. Ashes was scattered among the plants. 5. The odds offered seem great. 6. The assets of the house at the time of the failure were trifling. 7. No tidings of the missing steamer has yet been received. 8. Ethics is the science of human duty. 9. Riches take wings. 10. Politics is his trade.

2. The bellows belongs to the smith. 2. His clothes hangs loosely about him. 3. Billiards occupy too much of his attention. 4. His means as well as his opportunities appear to be taking flight. 5. Mathematics are his fort. 6. The axis passes through the centre. 7. The focus of an ellipse corresponds to the centre of a circle. 8. The data given was not correct. 9. The radius of the circle measures several feet. 10. The banditti destroy all communication between the two towns.

1. Nouns whose last sound will not unite with the sound represented by *s*, form their plurals by adding *es* to the singular; as, *box, boxes; witness, witnesses*.

2. Nouns ending in *y* preceded by a consonant, change *y* into *i*, and add *es*; as, *glory, glories; mercy, mercies*.

3. Most nouns ending in *f* change *f* to *v*, and add *es*; those ending in *fe* change *f* to *v*, and add *s*; as, *wife, wives*.

4. When compound nouns are formed by uniting a *noun* and an *adjective*, or an *adjective phrase*, into one word, the *noun* in the word is pluralized; as, *brothers-in-law, courts-martial, wagon-loads, ox-carts*.

FORMATION OF THE PLURAL.

Most nouns form their plural by adding s to the singular; as boy, boys; tree, trees; hat, hats.

Some nouns form their plural variously; as church, churches; box, boxes; inch, inches; lash, lashes; genius, geniuses; fox, foxes; hero, heroes; glory, glories; mercy, mercies; fly, flies; valley, valleys; beef, beeves; wife, wives; wolf, wolves; knife, knives; calf, calves; half, halves; thief, thieves; tooth, teeth; ox, oxen; brother-in-law, brothers-in-law; court-martial, courts-martial; knight-templar, knights-templars; ignis-fatuus, ignes-fatui.

Many foreign words retain their original plural:

Alumnus	alumni	Emphasis	emphases
Amanuensis	amanuenses	Focus	foci
Analysis	analyses	Genus	genera
Antithesis	antitheses	Hypothesis	hypotheses
Axis	axes	Metamorphosis	metamorphoses
Basis	bases	Apex	apices
Beau	beaux	Appendix	appendices
Crisis	crises	Bandit	banditti
Datum	data	Gymnasium	gymnasias
Parenthesis	parentheses	Medium	media
Phenomenon	phenomena	Memorandum	memoranda
Radius	radii	Momentum	momenta

Some nouns, the names of things consisting of parts, or forming a pair, are always plural in form, and, therefore, should be followed by verbs in the plural; Rule 13:

Manners, shears, bellows, tongs, scissors, pincers, billiards, snuffers, ashes, clothes, riches, vespers, goods, tidings, eaves, vitals, drugs, mumps, measles, annals, assets, compasses, hysterics.

Some other nouns are always plural in form, but generally singular in signification, and should be followed by verbs in the singular:

Pains, ethics, politics, means, series, news, odds, amends, physics, optics, mathematics.

GENDER OF NOUNS.

The gender of nouns is distinguished in three ways:

1. By a change of form; as, count, countess; tiger, tigress; hero, heroine.

2. By the use of different words; as, boy, girl; man, woman; father, mother.

3. By prefixing or affixing another word; as, Mr. Hall, Mrs. Hall; step-son, step-daughter; man-servant, maid-servant.

Suggestion.—The following nouns may be arranged under the three different heads just given. The lists of words on these pages may be treated as a special spelling lesson in which the meaning of the words should be taught.

Duke, duchess; miss, master; empress, emperor; marquis, marchioness; king, queen; lad, lass; sir, madam; papa, mamma; wizard, witch; groom, bride; lady, gentleman; Paul, Pauline; baron, baroness; lord, lady; widow, widower; hart, roe; Joseph, Josephine; he-bear, she-bear; doctor, doctress; belle, beaux; czar, czarina; uncle, aunt; youth, maiden; nephew, niece; sultan, sultana; arch-duke, arch-duchess; male-child, female-child; testator, testatrix; monk, nun.

COMPOSITIONS.

Before undertaking to write a composition on any subject the teacher or pupil should ask questions suggested by the object, and construct an outline like the following on peaches:

TOPICAL OUTLINE.

Peaches.	{	What they are.	{	Size.	
		Where they grow.		Shape.	
		General appearance.		Color.	
		Parts.		{	Skin.
					Pulp.
					Seed.
		Use and preparation.			

Write outlines of the following subjects and afterwards write compositions on them: Apples, plums, cherries, water-melons, tomatoes, etc.

Having written several compositions on subjects as familiar as the preceding, more difficult ones may be selected. The sources of the necessary information should be suggested or supplied by the teacher. A chapter on the subject may be read to the pupils, then, after a brief discussion of it by the entire class, the outline may be prepared and the composition written. Sturges' Manual of School Exercises furnishes interesting information for one hundred compositions.

THE OSTRICH.

Questions.—What is it? Found in what countries? In what kind of a climate does it flourish? As compared with the birds of this country, what can you say of it? What do you know of ostrich farming? Of what use is it? Can you give a brief sketch of the first one you saw, and the circumstances attending the occasion?

Subjects Suggested.—The condor, eagle, goose, tiger, elephant, hyena, whale, herring, alligator, turtle, lobster, etc.

TOPICAL OUTLINE.

George Washington.	{	Birth and parentage.	
		Early education.	
		Services. {	French and Indian war.
			Revolutionary war.
			As President.
		Character and rank as a General.	
		Death.	
		Interesting incidents in life.	

Subjects Suggested.—Thomas Jefferson, Aaron Burr, Sir William Pitt, Abraham Lincoln, William the Conqueror, Horace Greeley, Henry W. Longfellow, Christopher Columbus, etc.

MEXICAN WAR.

Information from United States History.

Questions. — To what three generals was the conduct of the war entrusted on the part of the United States government? Where was the first battle fought. Give an account of Gen. Taylor's operations in Texas at Palo Alto and at Rasaca de la Palma. In Mexico at Monterey and Buena Vista.

Give an account of Gen. Kearney's exploits in New Mexico and California.

With how many soldiers did Gen. Scott set out for the City of Mexico? Describe the attack upon and capture of Vera Cruz and Cerro Gordo. How long and for what purpose did the army rest at Puebla? Describe the march upon the Capital City, the attack upon Contreras, Churubusco, Chapultepec and the final entry of the army into the City of Mexico. [*Limit to one page of foolscap.*]

Mexican War.	Gen. Taylor.	Texas.	{ Fort Brown. Palo Alto. Rasaca de la Palma.
		Mexico.	{ Monterey. Buena Vista.
	Gen. Kearney.	New Mexico.	
		California.	
	Gen. Scott.	Vera Cruz. Cerro Gordo. Puebla.	
		Mexico.	{ Contreras. Churubusco. Chapultepec.

Subjects Suggested. — King George's War, French and Indian War, King Philip's War, Burgoyne's Invasion and Capture at Saratoga, Siege and Capture of Cornwallis at Yorktown, Battle of New Orleans, Perry's Victory.

Suggestion. — After a lesson has been prepared in the School Reader a composition may be written which will contain a brief sketch of the incidents related.

Cincinnati, Ohio, Dec. 5th, 1887.

Messrs. Hallett & Hall,
Vincennes, Ind.,

Dear Sirs,==

Observing your advertisement in the Enquirer of yesterday, I hereby offer my services as general clerk.

I am seventeen years of age, live with my parents, have a good knowledge of book keeping and I am rapid in figures.

Begging the favor of an interview, I am, gentlemen,

Your obedient servant,

Charles Johnson.

SUPERSCRPTION.

STAMP.

Messrs. Hallett & Hall,
Vincennes,
244 Pine st. Ind.

28. PROPERTY OF PRONOUNS.

A **Pronoun** is a part of speech which is used to represent a noun.

Pronouns are divided into four classes: Personal, Relative, Interrogative and Possessive. (See page 13.)

Personal Pronouns show by their *form* whether they are of the *first*, *second* or *third* person. (See page 16.)

A **Relative Pronoun** is used to represent a preceding word, or phrase, called its **antecedent**, to which it joins a modifying clause.

Remark.—The **Simple Relatives** are *who*, which is used to represent persons; *which* and *what*, to represent things; *that*, to represent both persons and things; and *as*, to take the place of *who*, *which*, or *that*, after *such*, *many* and *same*.

Interrogative Pronouns are relative pronouns which are used in asking questions.

Remark.—The **antecedent** of the interrogative pronoun is found in the answer to the question. The interrogatives are **who? which? what?**

Possessive Pronouns represent both the possessor and the thing possessed.

Remark.—The possessive pronouns retain the same form in the nominative and objective cases. They are **mine, thine, his, hers, ours, yours and theirs.**

Compound Personal Pronouns retain the same form in the *nominative* and *objective* cases and are not used in the possessive.

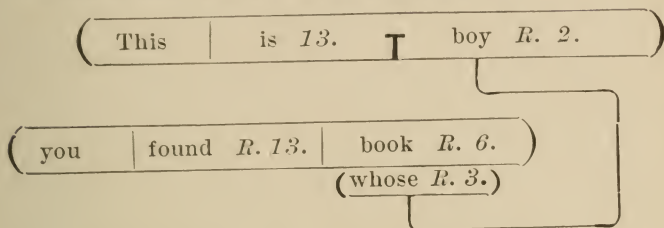
Remark.—They are **myself, thyself or yourself, himself, herself, itself** with the plural forms, **ourselves, yourselves and themselves.**

The **Compound Relative Pronouns** are, *who-*

ever, whosoever, whichever, whichsoever, whatever and whatsoever.

Analyze the following sentences:

"This is the boy whose book you found."

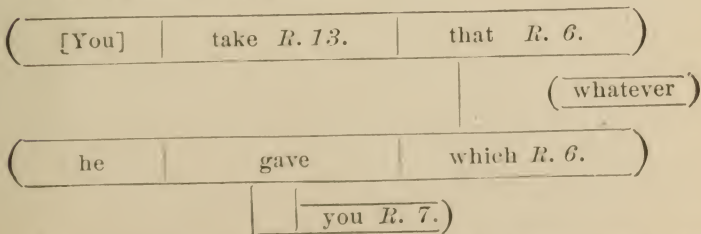


1. The gentleman, *whose* aid was solicited, has left town. 2. A man, *who* perseveres, will be honored. 3. The tempest, *which* was raging, drove them to the nearest shelter. 4. Paul, *who* was an apostle, visited Rome. 5. Solomon, *who* built the temple in Jerusalem, was the wisest of kings. 6. The house in which he lived has passed into other hands. 7. The time in which Priam, king of Troy, lived, is uncertain. 8. You may do what (that which) you please.

Remark.—The words *which, what, and that* are used as adjectives as well as relatives and interrogatives.

1. Which book did you take? What lesson did the teacher assign the class yesterday? 3. That lesson is easily prepared. 4. Which boy is the best scholar of the three? 5. What profession did he choose?

"Take whatever he gave you."



1. Whoever tries will succeed. 2. Call whoever you want.

3. Whatever is, is right. 4. That is right which is. 5. Whatsoever ye shall ask in my name that will I do. 6. Whoso keepeth the law is a wise son. 7. We should avoid doing whatever injures others.

Remark.—A compound relative pronoun is generally equivalent to two words—a **relative** and its **antecedent**. In the analysis, the two words should be used instead of the compound relative.

ORDER OF PARSING THE PRONOUN.

Pron.	Class.	Gender.	Person.	Number.	R	Case.	R
	Personal	Masculine	First	Singular		Nominat.	
	Relative	Feminine	Second	Plural	9	Possessive	3
	Interrogative	Common	Third			Objective	
	Possessive	Neuter					

RULE 9.—Pronouns must agree with their antecedents in person, gender, and number,

MODELS FOR PARSING.

1. "That book is *hers*."

FIRST METHOD:

Hers . . is a *pronoun; possessive; neuter gender; third person; singular number* (to agree with its antecedent), Rule 9; *nominative case*. Rule 2.

SECOND METHOD:

Hers . =her book. **Her**, *pronoun; personal; feminine; third; singular* (to agree with its antecedent, the name of the person referred to), Rule 9; *possessive*. Rule 3.

2. "Who is taller than *he*?"

Who . . . *pronoun; interrogative; common; third; singular* (to agree with some name understood), Rule 9; (the subject of a sentence, therefore in the) *nominative case*. Rule 1.

He *pronoun; personal; masculine; third; singular* (to agree with its antecedent, the name of him referred to), Rule 9; (subject of the verb, **is**, understood, therefore) *nominative*, Rule 1.

3. "The work is *your own*."

FIRST METHOD:

Your own is a *pronoun; possessive*; its antecedent is **work**; *neuter gender; third person; singular number; nominative case*. Rule 2.

SECOND METHOD:

Your own is a *pronoun; possessive*; it is equivalent to **your work**. Parse **your** as a personal pronoun in the possessive case, Rule 3; **work** as a noun used as the predicate. Rule 2.

4. "Whatever purifies, sanctifies."

Whatever is a *pronoun; relative; compound*; it is equivalent to *that which*. Parse **that** and **which**—**that** being the subject of **sanctifies**; **which**, of **purifies**.

5. "As many *as* came were baptized."

As is a *pronoun; relative*; its antecedent is **many**; *simple; common gender; third person; plural number*; Rule 9; *nominative case*; it is used as the subject of the subordinate proposition, **as came**, *i. e.*, **who came**. Rule 1.

EXERCISES.

Parse the nouns and pronouns:

1. Henry, come to me. 2. This hat is yours. 3. My hat, where is it? 4. George, that knife is mine. 5. This is yours, Henry. 6. Oh, the ghost of my father! 7. Drugs and Fancy Articles. 8. Goodness, what a sight! 9. The captain, what can I say to him? 10. He, himself, will do it.

2. Brother, the honor is yours, (it is) not mine. 2. That ball, it is his. 3. He is older than I (am), but I am older than she (is). 4. They, themselves, said so. 5. It is yours, not mine. 6. It is your book, it is not my book. 7. My brother and I will go when he returns. 8. We will go at the time at which he returns. 9. The officer arrived while George was present. 10. The officer arrived at the time at which George was present.

3. The vessel sank as it entered the harbor. 2. The vessel sank at the time at which it entered the harbor. 3. He acted as he was directed. 4. She is as amiable as her sister. 5. She is amiable in the same degree in which her sister is amiable. 6. She looks as tall as he. 7. The boy as well as the girl was there. 8. He looks as if he could do the work. 9. He was not only a good scholar, but also a fine musician. 10. He was a good scholar and fine musician.

EXERCISES.

To be corrected:

1. It was Virgil, him who wrote the *Æneid*. 2. It was bought of Mr. Brown, he who keeps the book store. 3. We have visited our friends, they who live in the city. 4. Mary, Queen of Scots, her that was beheaded, was pious. 5. I speak of Cromwell, he who beheaded Charles.

Remark.—When the gender of a pronoun referring to a person is not known, the masculine form should be used.

2. Every person should love their friends, and do good to them. 2. No person should boast of themselves. 3. The news has arrived and they are unfavorable. 4. Rebecca took goodly raiment and gave them to Jacob. 5. Let every pupil obey their teacher. 6. The Christian who knows their duty, loves their God. 7. No person can with propriety commend themselves. 8. Every one must judge of their own feelings. 9. The nation was once powerful, but now they are feeble. 10. The court was unanimous in their decision. 11. The assembly was so dense that we could scarcely see through them.

29. ADJECTIVES.

An **Adjective** is a word used to describe or define a noun.

1. A **Descriptive Adjective** limits or describes a noun by denoting some quality belonging to it.

Remark.—Many descriptive adjectives admit of comparison. (Page 35.)

1. A **Definitive Adjective** limits or defines the application of a noun without expressing any of its qualities. (Page 10.)

1. **Pronominal Adjectives** are **definitives**, most of which may, without an article prefixed, represent a noun understood.

Examples.—*Each, every, either, neither, this, that, these, those, former, latter, same, each other, one another, some, such, all, none, any, whole, one.*

Numeral Adjectives are **definitives** used in counting, in numbering and in multiplying.

Examples.—*One, two, six, first, sixth, once, twice, tenfold, triple.*

ORDER OF PARSING.

1. An adjective, and why?
2. Descriptive or Definitive, and why?
3. Compare it, if it admits of comparison.
4. Degree of comparison, and why?
5. What does it describe or define?
6. Rule.

MODELS FOR PARSING.

1. “*Every diligent boy will be rewarded.*”

Every is an *adjective; definitive; distributive pronominal*, and defines **boy**. Rule 12.

Diligent . . . is an *adjective; descriptive; compared*, diligent, more diligent, most diligent; *positive degree*, and describes **boy**. Rule 12.

2. “*The first painting is an American mountain scene.*”

The is an *adjective; definitive*, and defines **painting**. Rule 12.

First is an *adjective; definitive; numeral*, and belongs to **painting**. Rule 12.

American . . is an *adjective; descriptive*, and describes **painting**. Rule 12.

3. “*The weather is pleasant.*”

Pleasant . . is an *adjective; descriptive; compared*, pleasant, more pleasant, most pleasant; *positive degree*, and describes **weather**. Rule 23.

4. “*Many a flower is born to blush unseen.*”

Many a . . . is an *adjective; definitive; indefinite pronominal*, and defines **flower**. Rule 12.

Suggestion.—Parse the adjectives in the exercises on page 36. Selections may be made in any part of the work.

30. VERBS.

The **Verb** is that part of speech which is used to say or to tell something about some person or thing.

Verbs, with reference to use, are divided into **three** general classes: **Transitive**, **Intransitive**, and **Copulative**. (See page 8.)

Verbs, with reference to form, are classed as **Regular** and **Irregular**.

A **Regular Verb** is one whose past tense and perfect participle end in **ed**.

Examples.—I **cry**, I **cried**, I have **cried**; I **depart**, I **departed**, I have **departed**; I **love**, I **loved**, I have **loved**.

An **Irregular Verb** is one whose past tense and perfect participle do not end in **ed**.

Examples.—I **go**, I **went**, I have **gone**; I **see**, I **saw**, I have **seen**; I **write**, I **wrote**, I have **written**.

Auxiliary Verbs are used in the conjugation of other verbs to make some modification of **mode**, **tense**, **number** or **person**.

Examples.—*Do, be, have, may, can, must, shall, will, did, had, should, might, canst, couldst.*

Remark.—In many instances several auxiliaries unite with the principal verb to form one complete verb.

31. PROPERTIES OF THE VERB.

Transitive Verbs have Voice : an *Active* and a *Passive* Voice.

The **Active Voice** represents the subject as **acting**.

Examples.—"Williams *saw* Henry." "The owl *caught* the mouse."
"George *prepared* the work."

The **Passive Voice** represents the subject as being **acted upon**.

Examples.—"Henry *was seen* by William." "The mouse *was caught* by the owl." "The work *was prepared* by George."

To the Teacher.—*The use of the term, voice, in the parsing is not recommended. It is better to separate the parts—the copula and the participle—and to parse each by itself. (See page 21.) The class should be well drilled in changing sentences from the one voice to the other.*

Mode is the manner in which the action, being, or state is expressed.

The **Indicative Mode** asserts a thing as a fact; as, "The boy *writes*."

Remark.—The Indicative Mode is used in asking questions also; as, "*Does the boy write?*"

The **Subjunctive Mode** asserts a thing as doubtful. It is used only in subjunctive clauses.

The **Potential Mode** asserts the *duty, necessity, power, liberty, or liability* of acting or being; as, "They *must go*."

Remark.—The signs of the Potential Mode—the auxiliaries used—are, *may, can, must, might, could, would* and *should*.

The **Imperative Mode** is used in *commanding, exhorting, entreating or permitting*; as, "*Go, and come no more;*" "*Lead us not into temptation.*"

The **Infinitive Mode** is that form of the verb which is used as a noun, adjective, or adverb; as, "*To play* is pleasant;" "Children love *to play*."

Tense is that property of the verb which indicates the time of an action or an event.

The **Present Tense** denotes present time; as, "*He sleeps;*" "*He is writing.*"

The **Present Perfect Tense** represents an action or event as completed at the present time; as, "*I have written my letter;*" "*She has learned her lesson.*"

Remark.—This tense may be known by the auxiliaries, *have* and *had*.

The **Past Tense** expresses what took place in time passed: as, "*I wrote my letter;*" "*He learned his lesson.*"

The **Past Perfect Tense** expresses an action as completed in time passed. "*He had finished his task before I arrived.*"

Remark.—The auxiliary, *had*, is used in this tense.

The **Future Tense** expresses what will take place in future time; as, "*We shall see you again soon.*"

Remark.—The auxiliaries, *shall* and *will*, are used in this tense.

The **Future Perfect Tense** represents an action as completed at or before a certain future time; as, “We *shall have finished* our work by the time you arrive.”

The **Person** and **Number** of verbs are their modifications (changes in termination) to mark their agreement with their subjects; as, “I love;” “thou lovest;” “he loves;” “they love.”

RULE 13. A verb must agree with its subject in number and person.

ORDER OF PARSING THE VERB.

VERB	FORM.	CLASS.	MODE.	TENSE.	PERS'N	NUMBER.	R.
	Regular	Transitive	Indicative	Present	First	Singular	13
	Irreg.	Intransitive	Subjunctive	P. Perfect	Sec'd	Plural	13
		Copulative	Potential	Past	Third		
			Imperative	P. Perfect			
			Infinitive	Future			
				F. Perfect			

MODELS FOR PARSING.

1. “He *should have answered* my letter.”

Should have answered is a *verb; regular; transitive; potential mode; past perfect tense; third person, singular number.*
Rule 13.

2. “Liberty *is* sweet.”

Is is a *verb; irregular; copulative; indicative mode; present tense; third person, singular number, to agree with its subject, liberty.* Rule 13.

3. “Mr. Walker *was considered* wealthy.”

Was considered, *verb; regular; copulative; indicative; past; third; singular.* Rule 13.

4. "That carpenter *did build* our house."

Did build, . . *verb; regular; transitive; indicative; past; third, singular.* Rule 13.

5. "Bring me a glass of water."

Bring is a *verb; irregular; transitive; imperative mode; present tense; second person, singular number, to agree with its subject, thou, understood.* Rule 13.

6. "You *should have answered* my letter."

Should have answered, *verb; regular; transitive; potential; past perfect; second; plural.* Rule 13.

7. "If this *be* true, all will end well."

Be *verb; irregular; copulative; subjunctive; present.* R. 17.

8. "The storm *has destroyed* the crops."

Has destroyed, *verb; regular; transitive; indicative; present perfect; third, singular.* Rule 13.

9. The crops *have been* destroyed by the storm.

Have been, . *verb; irregular; copulative; indicative; present perfect; third, plural.* Rule 13.

10. "The watchman *ought to have notified* the police."

Ought to have notified, *verb; regular; transitive; potential; past perfect; third, singular.* Rule 13.

11. "The police *ought to have been notified* by the watchman."

Ought to have been, *verb; irregular; copulative; potential; past perfect; third, plural.* Rule 13.

EXERCISES.

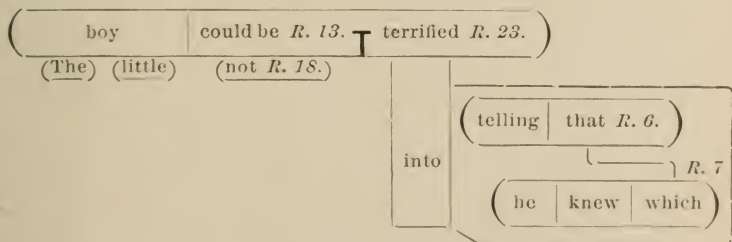
Parse the nouns, pronouns and verbs, and correct the errors.

1. They was discontented. 2. Thou can assist me if thou will. 3. You was there. 4. There was mountains where I spent the summer. 5. Them's my sentiments. 6. William and John was walking together. 7. Circumstances alters cases. 8. If I was you, I would not go. 9. The derivation of these words are uncertain. 10. The ignes-fatui was a terror to our new guide. 11. This heart of mine will break. (Page 77.)

2. Each of the workmen have done their share. 2. Every one of the drivers walk home. 3. Not one of the books are left on the desk. 4. Either of the pens are good enough for me. 5. Such phenomena is seldom observed. 6. The alumni meets this evening. 7. Politics are going to ruin him. 8. Mumps are contagious. 9. The memoranda is lost. 10. His hypotheses leads to error.

3. He dare not do it. 2. She need not do it. 3. The scissors is broken. 4. Her pulse are very quick. 5. The Pleasures of Hope are a fine poem. 6. The fleet were seen off the cape. 7. The committee were asked to report. 8. The legislature have adjourned. 9. Politics are his trade. 10. The news are confirmed. 11. Sing to the Lord, all ye saints of his.

"The little boy could not be terrified into telling what he knew."



In this sentence the preposition, **into**, has for its object the clause, **telling what he knew**.

ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

IRREGULAR VERBS.

Write a paragraph on the blackboard similar to the one below; then erase the words in italics. Let the lessons on irregular verbs be so prepared that when any one of the three forms is named the pupils may be able to read the paragraph supplying the correct forms to fill the blanks.

I write, I wrote, I have written, he has written, they have written; it is written, it should have been written, etc., etc.

PRESENT.	PAST.	PERFECT PARTICIP.
<i>I see,</i>	<i>I saw,</i>	<i>I have seen.</i>
<i>I bear,</i>	<i>I bore,</i>	<i>I have borne.</i>
<i>I blow,</i>	<i>I blew,</i>	<i>I have blown.</i>
<i>I break,</i>	<i>I broke,</i>	<i>I have broken.</i>
<i>They choose,</i>	<i>They chose,</i>	<i>They have chosen.</i>
<i>They draw,</i>	<i>They drew,</i>	<i>They have drawn.</i>
<i>He forsakes,</i>	<i>He forsook,</i>	<i>He has forsaken.</i>
<i>He gives,</i>	<i>He gave,</i>	<i>He has given.</i>

The different forms of the verb, **to be**, as well as **have**, **has** and **had**, should be followed by the *participial form* of the verb,—not by the *present* or *past tense* forms.

Correct the following sentences, using these models:

“We have *saw* him before.”

I see, I saw, I have seen. **Have** should be followed by the participial form of the verb, only, therefore the sentence should be, We have *seen* him before.

“George *done* it.”

I do, I did, I have done. An action in past time is expressed. therefore the past tense form of the verb should be used, and the sentence should be, George *did* it.

1. They had *bore* it long enough. 2. The tree was *blew* down by the wind. 3. My pencil is *broke* in two. 4. He has *chose* this boy for the place. 5. George has not *drew* the prize as was reported. 6. They had *drank* too much. 7. The birds were all *drove* away by the hawk. 8. The wigwam had been *forsook* by the wild hunter. 9. The land was all *gave* away by the government.

PRESENT.	PAST.	PERFECT PARTICIP.
<i>He goes,</i>	<i>He went,</i>	<i>He has gone.</i>
<i>He knows,</i>	<i>He knew,</i>	<i>He has known.</i>
<i>We lie,</i>	<i>We lay,</i>	<i>We have lain.</i>
<i>We load,</i>	<i>We loaded,</i>	<i>We have laden.</i>
<i>We ride,</i>	<i>We rode,</i>	<i>We have ridden.</i>
<i>We ring,</i>	<i>We rang,</i>	<i>We have rung.</i>
<i>They drive.</i>	<i>They drove,</i>	<i>They have driven.</i>
<i>They drink,</i>	<i>They drank,</i>	<i>They have drunk.</i>
<i>I lie,</i>	<i>I lay,</i>	<i>I have lain.</i>
<i>I lay,</i>	<i>I laid,</i>	<i>I have laid.</i>
<i>I sit,</i>	<i>I sat,</i>	<i>I have sat.</i>
<i>I set,</i>	<i>I set,</i>	<i>I have set.</i>
<i>It runs,</i>	<i>It ran,</i>	<i>It has run.</i>
<i>It shakes,</i>	<i>It shook,</i>	<i>It has shaken.</i>
<i>It shows,</i>	<i>It showed,</i>	<i>It has shown.</i>
<i>It speaks,</i>	<i>It spoke,</i>	<i>It has spoken.</i>
<i>I spring,</i>	<i>I sprang,</i>	<i>I have sprung.</i>
<i>I strive,</i>	<i>I strove,</i>	<i>I have striven.</i>
<i>I swim,</i>	<i>I swam.</i>	<i>I have swum.</i>
<i>I take,</i>	<i>I took,</i>	<i>I have taken.</i>

1. The children had *went* to school before Walter arrived. 2. We have *knew* that for a long time. 3. It has *lay* on the grass under the sun all day. 4. That car is *loaded* with salt. 5. The boy has *rode* that pony all over the prairie. 6. The bell was *rang* some time ago. 7. They must have *ran* the race before we arrived. 8. I have *saw* such things many a time. 9. The houses were *shook* by the storm.

2. The apartments should have been *showed* to us. 2. Those words were *spoke* by somebody who was present at the time. 3. The fox had *sprang* the trap. 4. She has *strove* hard to win the victory. 5. The boys have *swam* across the pond. 6. George has *took* my pencil. 7. The children have *tore* my book. 8. The boys had *threw* their books on the ground. 9. My book is *wrote* through. 10. I *seen* him yesterday. 11. They *done* it themselves. 12. George and John *run* a race this morning. 13. The squirrel *swum* across the river. 14. They *rung* the bell. 15. William *win* the last race.

NOTE.—The irregular verbs may be learned in the second and third grades before the study of grammar is commenced.

PRESENT.	PAST.	PERFECT PARTICIP.	PRESENT.	PAST.	PERFECT PARTICIP.
Arise,	arose,	arisen.	Say,	said,	said.
Begin,	began,	begun.	Sink,	sank,	sunk.
Beat,	beat,	beaten.	Sing,	sang,	sung.
Catch,	caught,	caught.	Slay,	slew,	slain.
Creep,	crept,	crept.	Smite,	smote,	smitten.
Cling,	clung,	clung.	Speak,	spoke,	spoken.
Come,	came,	come.	String,	strung,	strung.
Do,	did,	done.	Mistake,	mistook,	mistaken.
Drive,	drove,	driven.	Forget,	forgot,	forgotten.
Eat,	ate,	eaten,	Steal,	stole,	stolen.
Freeze,	froze,	frozen.	Swear,	swore,	sworn.
Fling,	flung	flung.	Tear,	tore,	torn.
Grow,	grew,	grown.	Teach,	taught,	taught.
Mean,	meant,	meant.	Throw,	threw,	thrown.
Pay,	paid,	paid.	Tread,	trod,	trodden.
Weep,	wept,	wept.	Write,	wrote,	written.
Shrink,	shrank,	shrunk.	Wear,	wore,	worn.
Beseech,	besought,	besought.	Weave,	wove,	woven.
Buy,	bought,	bought.	Win,	won,	won.

1. Have the parcels *came* yet? 2. Father has *drove* from Belleville. 3. The boys have *blew* out the light. 4. They have *arose* early this morning. 5. My sister *begun* about an hour ago. 6. Is your brother's arm *broke*? 7. James has not *broke* the pointer. 8. You have *drunk* too much of it. 9. I have *chose* my seat. 10. Have you *drew* your wages?.

2. The horse has *drank* enough. 2. Disputes have frequently *arose* on that subject. 3. They have just *arose* from the table. 4. The insect *crept* up the wall. 5. He always *clinged* to his own opinion. 6. I *done* three examples. 7. They have *began* it again. 8. I have *came* to see you. 9. Mother *come* home yesterday. 10. He *done* it himself.

3. The water I *drunk* there was good. 2. The pupils have *did* their work well. 3. He *drowed* this from the village. 4. I have *drank* three cups. 5. You have *broke* your promise. 6. They have *did* their work very well. 7. I have *knew* him for a year. 8. My employer *give* me my wages yesterday. 9. The plant has *grew* six inches. 10. The water is *froze*.

4. The poor old man was *forsook* by everyone. 2. He *knowed* me at once. 3. The dinner was all *eat*. 4. I *eat* a hearty breakfast this morning. 5. He had his ears *froze*. 6. Father has *went* with me several times. 7. The little girls were *forsook* by all their friends. 8. Thomas has *give* two dollars. 9. It *growed* a little last month. 10. Has Wallace *went* yet.

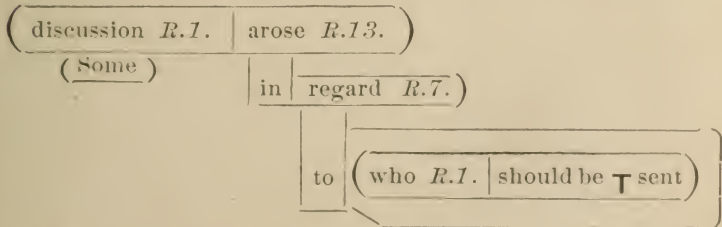
5. Have you *payed* your accounts. 2. I have *knew* him for two months. 3. The children *went* home. 4. Those apples were *ate* last night. 5. It was *gave* for that purpose. 6. He has *sang* in public before. 7. Jennie *sung* very well. 8. The wicked man has *slew* his brother. 9. French is *spoke* in every state in Europe. 10. Have you *shook* the carpet.

6. I have *rang* several times. 2. They *seen* him do it. 3. She has *sang* remarkably well. 4. They *seen* the boys in the garden. 5. The bell has *rang*. 6. Carrie has *saw* it before. 7. The steamer, Emerald, *sunk* with all on board. 8. The eggs have *sank* in the water. 9. Have you *shook* the tree. 10. We have *ran* all the way.

7. He *strived* to obtain the appointment. 2. Willie has *strove* hard to win the prize. 3. The school bell has *rang* an hour ago. 4. Charley has *wrote* his exercise. 5. I have *threw* away my peaches. 6. Is the boy's coat *tore*? 7. Has he *wove* the cloth yet? 8. A thief has *stole* my watch. 9. He has *mistook* his true interest. 10. Cousin Frank has *wore* his boots three months.

8. I have often *swam* across the river. 2. I *throwed* my box away. 3. They have *forgot* to call. 4. I have *mistook* the street. 5. Are the goods *stole*? 6. The dog *sprung* over the hedge. 7. His mother *tached* him how to do it.

"Some discussion arose in regard to who should be sent."



In this sentence the preposition, **to**, has for its object the clause, **who should be sent**.

An **Irregular Verb** is one which does not form its past tense and perfect participle by adding *d* or *ed* to the present tense.

These lists contain the *Principal Parts* of most of the Irregular Verbs. Those marked R have also the regular forms.

PRESENT.	PAST.	PERFECT PARTICIP.	PRESENT.	PAST.	PERFECT PARTICIP.
Abide,	abode,	abode.	Deal,	dealt,	dealt.
Am,	was,	been.	Dig,	dug, R.	dug, R.
Awake,	awoke, R.	awoke.	Dream,	dreamt, R.	dreamt, R.
Become,	became,	become.	Dress,	dress, R.	dress, R.
Befall	befell,	befallen.	Dwell,	dwelt, R.	dwelt, R.
Behold,	beheld,	heheld.	Fall,	fell,	fallen.
Bend,	bent, R.	bent, R.	Feed,	fed,	fed.
Bereave,	bereft, R.	bereft, R.	Feel,	felt,	felt.
Bet,	bet, R.	bet, R.	Fight,	fought	fought.
Betide,	{ betided,	betided,	Find,	found,	found.
	{ betid,	betid.	Forbear,	forbore,	forborne,
Bid,	{ bid,	bid,	Flee,	fled.	fled.
	{ bade,	bidden.	Fly,	flew,	flown.
Bite,	bit,	{ bitten,	Freight,	freighted,	fraught, R.
		{ bit.	Get,	got,	gotten.
Bind,	bound,	bound,	Gild,	gilt, R.	gilt, R.
Bleed,	bled,	bled.	Gird,	girt, R.	girt, R.
Bless,	{ blessed,	blessed,	Grave,	graved,	graven, R.
	{ blest,	blest.	Grind,	ground,	ground.
Breed,	bred,	bred.	Hang,	hung, R.	hung, R.
Bring,	brought,	brought.	Have,	had,	had.
Build,	built, R.	built, R.	Heave,	hove, R.	hove, R.
Burn,	burnt, R.	burnt, R.	Hew,	hewed,	hewn, R.
Burst,	burst,	burst,	Hear,	heard,	heard.
Cast,	cast,	cast.	Hide,	hid,	hidden.
Clothe,	clad,	clad.	Hit,	hit,	hit.
Cost,	cost,	cost.	Hold,	held,	held,
Crow,	crew, R.	crowed.	Hurt,	hurt,	hurt,
Cut,	cut,	cut.	Keep,	kept,	kept.
Dare,	durst, R.	dared.	Kneel,	knelt, R.	knelt.

PRESENT.	PAST.	PERFECT PARTICIP.	PRESENT.	PAST.	PERFECT PARTICIP.
Knit,	knit, R.	knit, R.	Sleep,	slept,	slept.
Lay,	laid,	laid.	Sling,	slung,	slung.
Lead,	led,	led.	Slink,	slunk,	slunk.
Lean,	leant, R.	leant, R.	Slit,	slit,	slit.
Leap,	leapt, R.	leapt, R.	Smell,	smelt,	smelt, R.
Learn,	learnt, R.	learnt, R.	Speed,	sped,	sped.
Leave,	left,	left.	Spell,	spelt, R.	spelt, R.
Lend,	lent,	lent.	Spend,	spent,	spent.
Let,	let,	let.	Spill,	spilt, R.	spilt, R.
Lie(<i>recline</i>)	lay	lain.	Spin,	{ spun, span,	spun.
Light,	lit, R.	lit, R.	Spit,	{ spit, spat,	spit, spitten.
Lose,	lost,	lost.	Split,	split,	split,
Meet,	met,	met.	Spread,	spread,	spread.
Mow,	mowed,	mown, R.	Spoil,	spoilt, R.	spoilt, R.
Pass,	past, R.	past,	Stav,	staid, R.	staid, R.
Pen, (<i>incl.</i>),	pent, R.	pent, R.	Stand,	stood,	stood.
Plead,	{ plead, R. pled,	plead, pled.	Stave,	stove, R.	stove, R.
Put,	put,	put.	Stick,	stuck,	stuck.
Quit,	quit, R.	quit, R.	Sting,	stung,	stung,
Rap,	rapt, R.	rapt, R.	Stride,	{ strode, strid,	stridden, strid.
Read,	read,	read.	Strike,	struck,	struck.
Reave,	reft,	reft.	Strow,	strowed,	strown.
Rend,	rent,	rent.	Sweat,	sweat, R.	sweat, R.
Rid,	rid,	rid,	Sweep,	swept,	swept.
Seethe,	sod, R.	sodden, R.	Swell,	swelled,	swollen, R.
Seek,	sought,	sought.	Swing,	swung,	swung.
Set,	set,	set.	Tell,	told,	told.
Shake,	shook,	shaken,	Think,	thought,	thought.
Shape,	shaped,	shapen, R.	Thrive,	throve, R.	thriven, R.
Shave,	shaved,	shaven, R.	Wake,	woke, R.	woke, R.
Shear,	shore, R.	shorn, R.	Wed,	wed, R.	wed, R.
Shed,	shed,	shed.	Wet,	wet, R.	wet, R.
Shine,	shone, R.	shone, R.	Whet,	whet, R.	whet, R.
Shoe,	shod,	shod,	Wind,	wound,	wound.
Shoot,	shot,	shot.	Work,	wrought,	wrought.
Shred,	shred,	shred.	Wring,	wrung,	wrung.
Shut,	shut,	shut.			
Sit,	sat,	sat.			
Sow, (<i>scat.</i>)	sowed.	sown, R.			

CONJUGATION OF THE VERB "TO BE."

INDICATIVE MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. I am,	1. We are,
2. You are (thou art),	2. You are,
3. He is;	3. They are.

PRESENT PERFECT TENSE.

1. I have been,	1. We have been,
2. You have been (thou <i>hast</i>),	2. You have been,
3. He has been;	3. They have been.

PAST TENSE.

1. I was,	1. We were,
2. You were (thou <i>wast</i>),	2. You were,
3. He was;	3. They were.

PAST PERFECT TENSE.

1. I had been,	1. We had been,
2. You had been (thou <i>hadst</i>),	2. You had been,
3. He had been;	3. They had been.

FUTURE TENSE.

1. I shall be,	1. We shall be,
2. You will be (thou <i>wilt</i>),	2. You will be,
3. He will be;	3. They will be.

FUTURE PERFECT TENSE.

1. I shall have been,	1. We shall have been,
2. You will have been,	2. You will have been,
3. He will have been;	3. They will have been,

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.*

PRESENT TENSE.

1. If I be,	1. If we be,
2. If you be,	2. If you be,
3. If he be;	3. If they be.

PAST TENSE.

1. If I were,	1. If we were,
2. If you were (thou <i>wert</i>),	2. If you were,
3. If he were;	3. If they were.

PAST PERFECT TENSE.

1. If I had been,	1. If we had been,
2. If you had been,	2. If you had been,
3. If he had been;	3. If they had been.

*The forms of the subjunctive, which differ from those of the indicative, are shown by the full-face type.

POTENTIAL MODE

PRESENT TENSE.

Singular.

1. I may be,
2. You may be,
3. He may be;

Plural.

1. We may be,
2. You may be,
3. They may be.

PRESENT PERFECT TENSE.

1. I may have been,
2. You may have been,
3. He may have been;

1. We may have been,
2. You may have been,
3. They may have been.

PAST TENSE.

1. I might be,
2. You might be,
3. He might be;

1. We might be,
2. You might be,
3. They might be.

PAST PERFECT TENSE.

1. I might have been,
2. You might have been,
3. He might have been;

1. We might have been,
2. You might have been,
3. They might have been.

REM.—*Shall*, in the first person, and *will*, in the second and third, future tenses, are used to denote *futurity*. When *will* is used in the first person, or *shall*, in the second or third, *determination* or *necessity*, as well as *futurity*, is represented.

CONJUGATION OF THE VERB "TO LOVE."

INDICATIVE MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.

Singular.

1. I love,
2. Thou lovest,
3. He loves;

Plural.

1. We love,
2. You love,
3. They love.

PRESENT PERFECT TENSE.

1. I have loved,
2. Thou hast loved,
3. He has loved;

1. We have loved,
2. You have loved,
3. They have loved.

PAST TENSE.

1. I loved,
2. Thou lovedst,
3. He loved;

1. We loved,
2. You loved,
3. They loved.

PAST PERFECT TENSE.

Singular.

1. I had loved,
2. Thou hadst loved,
3. He had loved;

Plural.

1. We had loved,
2. You had loved,
3. They had loved.

FUTURE TENSE.

1. I shall love,
2. Thou wilt love,
3. He will love;

1. We shall love,
2. You will love,
3. They will love.

FUTURE PERFECT TENSE.

1. I shall have loved,
2. Thou wilt have loved,
3. He will have loved;

1. We shall have loved,
2. You will have loved,
3. They will have loved.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.

1. If I love,
2. If thou love,
3. If he love;

1. If we love,
2. If you love,
3. If they love.

PAST TENSE.

1. If I loved,
2. If thou loved,
3. If he loved;

1. If we loved,
2. If you loved,
3. If they loved.

PAST PERFECT TENSE.

1. If I had loved,
2. If thou hadst loved,
3. If he had loved;

1. If we had loved,
2. If you had loved,
3. If they had loved.

POTENTIAL MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.

1. I may love,
2. Thou mayst love,
3. He may love;

1. We may love,
2. You may love,
3. They may love.

PRESENT PERFECT TENSE.

1. I may have loved,
2. Thou mayst have loved,
3. He may have loved;

1. We may have loved,
2. You may have loved,
3. They may have loved.

PAST TENSE.

1. I might love,
2. Thou mightst love,
3. He might love;

1. We might love,
2. You might love,
3. They might love.

PAST PERFECT TENSE.

Singular.

Plural.

- | | |
|-----------------------------|---------------------------|
| 1. I might have loved, | 1. We might have loved, |
| 2. Thou mightst have loved, | 2. You might have loved, |
| 3. He might have loved; | 3. They might have loved. |

CONJUGATION OF THE AUXILIARIES.

	<i>Singular.</i>			<i>Plural.</i>		
	<i>1st per.</i>	<i>2d per.</i>	<i>3d per.</i>	<i>1st per.</i>	<i>2d per.</i>	<i>3d per.</i>
	<i>I</i>	<i>Thou</i>	<i>He</i>	<i>We</i>	<i>You</i>	<i>They</i>
Pres.—Am	art		is	are	are	are
Past—Was	wast		was	were	were	were
Pres.—Do	dost		does	do	do	do
Past—Did	didst		did	did	did	did
Pres.—Have	hast		has	have	have	have
Past—Had	hadst		had	had	had	had
Pres.—Will	wilt		will	will	will	will
Past—Would	wouldst		would	would	would	would
Pres.—Shall	shalt		shall	shall	shall	shall
Past—Should	shouldst		should	should	should	should
Pres.—May	mayst		may	may	may	may
Past—Might	mightst		might	might	might	might
Pres.—Can	canst		can	can	can	can
Past—Could	couldst		could	could	could	could

ABBREVIATIONS.

<i>Dr.</i>	Doctor.	<i>Hon.</i>	Honorable.	<i>Pres.</i>	President.
<i>Cr.</i>	Credit.	<i>Atty.</i>	Attorney.	<i>Jan.</i>	January.
<i>Col.</i>	Colonel.	<i>Capt.</i>	Captain.	<i>Feb.</i>	February.
<i>Gen.</i>	General.	<i>A. M.</i>	Forenoon.	<i>Mch.</i>	March.
<i>Maj.</i>	Major.	<i>P. O.</i>	Post Office.	<i>Apr.</i>	April.
<i>Lieut.</i>	Lieutenant.	<i>P. S.</i>	Postscript.	<i>Aug.</i>	August.
<i>Co.</i>	Company.	<i>M.</i>	Noon.	<i>Sept.</i>	September.
<i>Esq.</i>	Esquire.	<i>P. M.</i>	Afternoon.	<i>Oct.</i>	October.
<i>Gov.</i>	Governor.	<i>Bbl.</i>	Barrel.	<i>Nov.</i>	November.
<i>Rev.</i>	Reverend.	<i>Lb.</i>	Pound.	<i>Dec.</i>	December.

<i>St.</i>	Saint, or Street.	<i>A. D.</i>	In the year of our Lord.
<i>Supt.</i>	Superintendent.	<i>C. O. D.</i>	Collect on delivery.
<i>B. C.</i>	Before Christ.	<i>Ult.</i>	The last month.
<i>U. S.</i>	United States.	<i>Prox.</i>	The next month.
<i>M. C.</i>	Member of Congress.	<i>Inst.</i>	This month.

Shall should be used with the *first person* (I or we) and **will** with the *second* and *third person* (thou or he, you or they) to denote a future action or event.

Remark.—When it is desired to express **determination** or **necessity** in future time **will** should be used with the *first person* and **shall** with the *second* and *third person*.

SENTENCES.

To be corrected:

1. I think I will return home.
2. He shall be here this evening.
3. Now that the war is over, the army shall be disbanded.
4. If I was you I would remain at home.
5. They shall go with you.
6. When will we three meet again?
7. The books shall be there early in the morning.
8. One of my books were on the table.
9. We will see you.

PRES. TENSE.	PAST TENSE.	PRES. PARTICIPLE.	PAST PARTICIPLE.
Sit,	sat,	sitting,	sat.
Set,	set,	setting,	set.
Lie,	lay,	lying,	lain.
Lay,	laid,	laying,	laid.

Lay and **set** are *transitive* verbs; **lie** and **sit** are *intransitive* verbs.

Fill the blanks in the following sentences, using the proper form of one of the verbs, *sit*, *set*, *lie* or *lay*:

1. We — on benches during the day, and — on bears' skins during the night.
2. George — the bottle on the table.
3. They have — all the chairs and tables in place.
4. Belle — the lamp on the table a few moments ago.
5. We — on the bench by the brook yesterday.
6. We often — there and read.
7. I — the paper on the table only a moment ago.
8. — down on the sofa and rest awhile.
9. I have — on this bed for two weeks.
10. He — the book on the desk and there it — yet.

ORDER FOR GOODS.

KANSAS CITY, MO., August 17, 1889.

MESSRS. JONES & BROWN,

Please deliver to bearer, with bill, for me,

One pair Rubber Boots, No. 8.

One pair Leather Slippers, No. 7.

JOHN H. LYONS.

Per.

Suggestions.—Explain the object of such orders. Call attention to form of beginning, use of capital letters and punctuation. Signature should be that of the firm with student's initials underneath.

Write the following orders:

Name of city, New York; date, to-day. Order two dozen napkin rings, plain, solid; three dozen tea-spoons; two Elgin watches, 18 carat, stem winders, of Wm. Dawson & Co. Sign the name of Clement, Wilson & Co.

Name of city, Cincinnati; date, to-day. Order of C. W. Butler & Co. five lbs. granulated sugar, two lbs. Rio coffee, two lbs. Japan tea. Ordered by M. C. Coughton.

ORDER FOR GOODS FROM ABROAD.

CLEVELAND, OHIO, Jan. 1, 1889.

MESSRS. H. B. HURD & Co.,

283 Canal St., New York.

GENTLEMEN:—Please ship by American Express, as soon as possible, the following goods:

Two casks Valencia Raisins.

Three boxes Sicily Oranges.

I will remit promptly upon receipt of your invoice.

Yours truly,

HENRY HAMMOND.

Suggestions.—Notice from beginning name and address. Notice the wording at beginning, and modify same to apply to any freight line. What other words can be used instead of "as soon as possible" to convey the proper meaning? Each item on a line by itself. What other closing paragraph may be substituted for the one in the form?

Write the following orders:

Name of city, Chicago; date, to-day. Order of H. B. Claflin & Co., 19th and Broadway, New York, 10 yds. black broad-cloth, eight yds. French cassimere, and five yds. doeskin. Request them to use care in selecting the goods, and to forward them without delay, via Adams Express. Sign the name of J. W. Webster.

Name of city, Detroit; date, to-day. Order of James Burton & Co., 123 Pearl St., Boston, five cases Labrador herring, three kits mackerel, and two hhds. N. O. sugar. Request them to ship by the Star Union line, and to draw on you at sight for the amount of the bill. Sign your own name.

ORDER FOR GOODS—Inclosing Price.

CHICAGO, Nov. 1, 1889.

MESSRS. ARNOLD, CONSTABLE & Co.,
New York.

GENTLEMEN:—Please forward me by U. S. Express at once,

1 Lancaster Spread,	-	-	\$3.50	
12 yds. Gingham, \$.15,	-	-	1.80	
3 doz. Napkins, \$3.00,	-	-	9.00	\$14.30

For which I enclose P. O. money order.

Respectfully,

WILLIAM MILLER.

Suggestions.—Observe critically: The name and address. The punctuation and use of capital letters. The form of expression and how it may be modified. Where the items should be placed and where the total.

Write the following orders:

Order of J. W. Lunt & Co., Boston, 6 prs. men's thick boots, at \$3.50; 8 prs. boy's stoga boots, at \$2.50; 4 prs. kip boots, at \$3.00. Date, to-day. Inclose price by New York exchange. Sign your own name.

Order of W. W. Nead & Co., Albany, N. Y., 4 Charter Oak stoves, No. 3, at \$18.40; 6 Home Comfort ranges, at \$37.75; 9 Ragburn copper boilers, at \$3.50; 15 granite dish pans, at \$1.13. Date, to-day. Inclose price by Buffalo exchange. Sign the name of G. E. Pallen.

31. ADVERBS.

An adverb is a word used to modify or limit the meaning of a verb, an adjective, or another adverb; as “He acts *cautiously*,” “He is *remarkably* cautious,” “He acts *more* cautiously.” (See page 24.)

Explanation.—An adverb is an abridged expression used as a modifier; thus, *cautiously* means *in a cautious manner*; *remarkably* means *in a remarkable degree*; and *more* means *in a greater degree*. So *here* is equivalent to *in this place*; *then*, to *at that time*, etc.

Adverbs may be divided into five general classes: Adverbs of **manner**, of **degree**, of **time**, of **place**, and of **cause**. (See page 37.)

ORDER OF PARSING.

1. An Adverb, and why?
2. Compare it.
3. Tell what it modifies.
4. Rule.

MODELS FOR PARSING.

1. “They acted *wisely*.”

Wisely is an *adverb of manner*; compared, wisely, more wisely, most wisely, and modifies **acted**. Rule 18: “Adverbs modify verbs, adjectives, participles and adverbs.”

2. “*Why* do you tremble?”

Why is an *adverb*; *interrogative*; not compared, and modifies **do tremble**. Rule 18.

3. “Catch the manners living *as* they rise.”

As is a *conjunctive adverb*; it stands for two phrases, **at the time**, and **in which**, and modifies **catch** and **rise**. Rule 18.

4. "I will go *whenever* you wish."

Whenever . is a *conjunctive adverb*; it stands for two phrases, *at time* and *at which*, and modifies **will go** and **wish**.
Rule 18.

5. "The two little boys walk *hand in hand*."

Hand in hand is an *adverbial phrase*; it modifies **walk**. Rule 18.

Suggestion.—Exercises for parsing may be selected from the sentences given on pages 25 and 39.

PREPOSITIONS.

Prepositions are words which are used with nouns and pronouns in the formation of phrases which are used as modifiers; or, a **preposition** is a word which is used to show the relation between its object and some other word in the sentence. (See pages 28 and 47.)

Remark.—The object of a preposition may be a word, a phrase, or a clause.

LIST OF PREPOSITIONS.

A; "Be quiet, and go *a* fishing."

Aboard; "To go or be *aboard* a ship."

About; "To run *about* the house." "To dine *about* noon."

Above; "The stars *above* us." "To be *above* meanness."

According to; "Proceed *according to* law." (Page 47.)

Across; "A tree lying *across* the road."

After; "*After* life's fitful fever, he sleeps well."

Against; "Uplift *against* the sky, your mighty shapes."

Along; "The cloud is gilded *along* the border."

Amid, amidst; "A lark reared her brood *amid* the corn."

Among, amongst; "Flowers perish *among* weeds."

Around; "I hear *around* me cries of fear."

As to; "*As to* the parts of the cargo, they were already gone."

At; "She is *at* home." "The bell rings *at* six."

Athwart; "*Athwart* the waste the pleasant home-light shines."

- Before; "The tree *before* the house." "To rise *before* day."
- Behind; "The squirrel hid *behind* the tree."
- Below; "The James River is very crooked *below* Richmond."
- Beneath; "The steps creaked *beneath* his noiseless tread."
- Beside; "A large sycamore grew *beside* the river."
- Besides; "There is nothing at all *besides* this manna."
- Between; "The town is situated *between* two mountains,"
- Betwixt; "He was crushed *betwixt* two cars."
- Beyond; "The life *beyond* the grave is a mystery."
- But=*except*; "Whence all *but* him had fled."
- By; "A lily *by* a brook." "Demolished *by* soldiers."
- Concerning; "He spoke *concerning* virtue."
- Down; "The boat went *down* the river."
- During; "He remained abroad *during* the war."
- Ere; "He came *ere* noon."
- Except, excepting; "All *except* him were set free."
- For; "I looked up *for* a moment." "I sell *for* cash."
- From; "He felt like a leaf torn *from* a romance."
- In; "Late *in* life, he began life *in* earnest."
- Into; "He gazed *into* the vast surrounding darkness."
- Like; "My brother looks *like* him."
- Notwithstanding; "He is proud, *notwithstanding* his poverty."
- Of; "'Tis the middle watch *of* a summer's night."
- Off; "Juan Fernandez lies *off* the coast of Chili."
- On; "The picture *on* the wall." "To start *on* Tuesday."
- Out of; "Drawn *out of* a well." "A piano *out of* tune."
- Over; "The billows had rolled *over* him." "He rules *over* us."
- Past; "He drove *past* our house this morning."
- Round; "A shoreless ocean tumbled *round* the globe."
- Save; "All *save* him remained."
- Since; "He has not been here *since* last Christmas."
- Till, until; "He will remain here *till* next Christmas."
- Through; "Then stopt she down *through* town and field."
- Throughout; "Much anxiety was felt *throughout* the land."
- To; "To go *to* the river."
- Toward, towards; "He turned me *toward* the moonlight."
- Under; "He stands erect *under* the curved roof."
- Unto; "Verily, I say *unto* you."
- Up; "He sailed *up* the river."
- Upon; "They were walking *upon* the hurricane deck."

With; "The sky was red *with* flame."

Within; "Ambition and pride stirred *within* him."

Without; "The morning broke *without* a sun."

Great care is necessary in the selections of prepositions. The ones should be used which exactly express the relations intended by the speaker.

During should be used when the event continues through all the period mentioned; as "I have examined law papers *during* the day."

In or **at** is used before the names of countries, cities and towns; as, "He lives *in* Cincinnati;" "They reside *at* Clifton;" "They stayed *in* London."

Into should be used after verbs denoting entrance; as, "She came *into* the house;" "He put his hands *into* his pockets."

At is generally used after *to be*, not followed by a predicate; as, "They are *at* home;" "She is *at* school." When a predicate is understood, or clearly implied, *to* should be used; as, "I have been *to* Cincinnati."

Upon should follow *bestow* and *dependent*; as, "Many favors were bestowed *upon* me;" "He is dependent *upon* his friends."

From should follow *differ* and *dissent*; as, "I differ *from* you;" "I dissent *from* that decision."

In should follow *confide*; as, "I confide *in* you."

Remark.—The following is a list of prepositions which are used but little: *Alongside, afore, adown, aneath, aslant, atwixt, despite, inside, outside, minus, plus, per, underneath, versus, via, along with, despite of, from among, from before, from betwixt, from under, off of, over against, round about, but for, excepting, regarding, touching, respecting.* (See page 40.)

Punctuation.—*The Quotation Marks* [" "] are used to show that a passage is taken verbatim from some author.

ORDER OF PARSING.

1. A Preposition, and why?
2. How is it used?
3. Rule.

MODELS FOR PARSING.

1. "We live *on* the prairie."

On is a preposition; with the noun, **prairie**, it forms a phrase which modifies the verb, **lives**. Rule 24.

2. "They came *from over* the river."

From over . is a complex preposition; with the noun, **river**, it forms a phrase which modifies the verb, **came**. Rule 24. (Page 47.)

Suggestion.—Parse the prepositions in the sentences on page 29 and correct the errors.

THE CONJUNCTION.

A **Conjunction** is a word used to connect words, phrases and sentences; as, "The horse *and* wagon were taken, *but* the driver escaped."

Remark.—Conjunctions sometimes merely introduce sentences; as, "*And* it was said in those days."

CLASSES OF CONNECTIVES.

Connectives may be divided into two classes: **Coördinate** and **Subordinate**.

Coördinate Connectives are those which join elements of the same rank.

Subordinate Connectives are those which join elements of different ranks. They are used in complex sentences. (Page 45.)

Explanation.—Co-ordinate conjunctions are connectives which form no part of the material of which a sentence is composed—their use being to unite the material into a single sentence.

Examples.—“Peter *and* John went to the temple;” “Knowledge comes, *but* wisdom lingers;” “The air is damp, *and* hushed, *and* close;” “And love the offender, *yet* detest the offense.”

Explanation.—Relative Pronouns are a class of **Subordinate Conjunctions** which represent antecedents and to these antecedents join clauses which describe them. Conjunctive Adverbs connect clauses and modify a word in each.

LIST OF CONJUNCTIONS.

And; “The winds *and* the waves are absent there.”

As; “As you request it, I will go.”

As well as; “He, *as well as* I, was deceived.”

Consequently; “I am sick, *consequently* I cannot come.”

Even; “It was very cold; *even* mercury was frozen.”

For; “Rise, *for* it is day.”

If; “I shall not go *if* it rain.”

So; “For Brutus is an honorable man;
So are they all, all honorable men.”

Since; “*Since* you have come, I will go.”

Seeing; “Wherefore come ye to me, *seeing* ye hate me?”

Than; “I am older *than* he.”

That; “It is admitted *that* the war is a calamity.”

Then; “You know our rules; *then* obey them.”

Moreover; It sometimes begins a paragraph.

Therefore; “Wisdom is the principal thing, *therefore* get wisdom.”

Wherefore; Use like *therefore* in drawing inferences.

Although, though; “*Though* he owns but little, he owes nothing.”

But; “I go, *but* I return.”

Either; “*Either* John or Charles will come.”

Neither; "*Neither* John nor Charles will come."

Except; "He is sane, *except* when he talks of me."

Lest; "Neither shall ye touch it, *lest* ye die."

Nor; "Simois *nor* Xanthus shall be wanting there."

Or; "We must educate, *or* we must perish."

Provided; "He will go, *provided* his fare is paid."

Save; "When all slept sound, *save* she who bore them both."

Still; "He has often failed, *still* he strives."

Unless; "Remain, *unless* you must go."

Whether; "I will ascertain *whether* he has come."

Whereas; "Reason errs; *whereas* instinct," etc.

Yet; "All dread death, *yet* few are pious."

Correlatives are conjunctions used in pairs, one referring to another.

Both - - and; "It is *both* mine *and* yours."

As - - - as; "I am *as* tall *as* you."

As - - - so; "As it was then, *so* it is now."

So - - - as; "He is not *so* tall *as* I."

So - - - that; "It was *so* cold *that* I nearly perished."

Either - or; "It is *either* mine *or* yours."

Neither nor; "It is *neither* mine *nor* yours."

If - - - then; "If he confessed it, *then* forgive him."

Though - yet, nevertheless; "Though deep, *yet* clear."

Not only but also; "He was *not only* rich, *but also* generous."

Whether or; "I know not *whether* it is mine *or* yours."

Nor - - - nor; Often used by poets instead of neither nor.

Certain combinations of words have the force of connectives, and should be parsed as such:

Examples.—*As though, as well as, as far as, as soon as, as many as, in so much that, but also.* (See page 46.)

ORDER OF PARSING.

1. What part of speech?
2. Co-ordinate or Subordinate, and why?
3. What does it connect?
4. Rule.

MODELS FOR PARSING.

1. "George *or* I will aid in the work."

Or - - - is a conjunction; co-ordinate; it connects **George** and **I**. Rule 20.

RULE 20.—Co-ordinate conjunctions connect similar elements.

2. "I shall go *as soon as* they return."

As soon as is a conjunction; co-ordinate; it connects the two sentences, **I shall go** and **they return**. Rule 20.

3. "*Neither* Arthur *nor* Henry wrote the letter."

Neither - **nor** are conjunctions; correlative; **neither** introduces the sentence and **nor** connects **Arthur** and **Henry**. Rule 20.

4. "He succeeds *because* he is industrious."

Because - is a conjunction; subordinate; it joins dissimilar elements; it connects **learns** and **he is studious**. Rule 21.

RULE 21.—Subordinate conjunctions connect dissimilar elements.

Suggestion.—Parse the conjunctions in the sentences on pages selected in different parts of the work.

THE INTERJECTION.

An **Interjection** is a word used to denote some sudden or strong emotion; as, "Tush! tush! 'twill not again appear." "Pshaw! that is ridiculous."

Remark.—The following are some of the principal interjections: *Ah, fie, ho, hallo, alas, avaunt, alack, ha, indeed, bravo, faugh, fudge, begone, adieu, farewell, good-by, ahoy, lo, hark, whist, avast, hold, eh? hey? hail, all-hail, hush, hist, heigho.*

Explanation.—Interjections have no grammatical construction or definite meaning. They occur frequently in colloquial or impassioned discourse, and are expressions of emotion only. They are generally found at the commencement of sentences.

Remark.—Other parts of speech may be treated as interjections, when used as such; as, “My stars! what can all this be?”

The interjection is to be parsed as “having no grammatical relation to the other parts of the sentence.”

The following etymologies of a few common interjections may be of interest:

Amen, a Hebrew adverb signifying *verily, truly, yea*.

Good-bye, *God b' wi' ye*=God be with you.

O dear, *O Dieu*=O God.

Alas! *ah lessa*=O [me] miserable.

Adieu, *a dieu*=[I commend you] to God.

An **Exclamatory Sentence** is one that expresses a thought in an interjectional manner; as, “Oh! that this too, too solid flesh would melt!” “Oh, how glad I am to see you!”

Below will be found a few illustrations of the use of interjections:

1. They opened their mouth wide against me, and said: “*Aha!* *aha!*”
2. *Fy!* my lord, *fy!* a soldier, and afraid!
3. *Alas!* both for the deed and for the cause.
4. *Alack!* when once we have our grace forgot, nothing goes right.
5. *Hush! hark!* a deep sound strikes like a rising knell.
6. O Nature, how in every charm supreme!
7. *Ha!* laugh'st thou, Lochiel, my vision to scorn?
8. “*Ho!* shifts she thus?” King Henry cried.

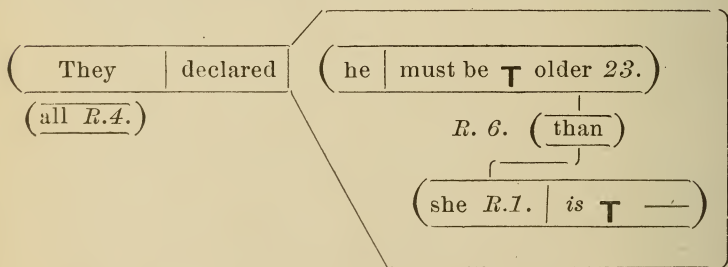
27. DIFFICULT CONSTRUCTIONS.

Many of the commonest expressions in our language involve difficulties in analysis which render it unsatisfactory if not impossible. They are idiomatic constructions which do not come under the general principles which govern the language

Remark.—An effort may be made to analyze the following sentences after supplying the words which are supposed to be missing:

1. They are not so proud as he nor so vain as she. 2. This heart of *mine* will break. 3. Sing to the Lord all ye saints of *his*.
4. Those lips of my *father's* are now closed for ever. (Page 82).
5. How much (x) is it (x) worth? 6. It is (x) worth (x) while to go to Strasburg to see the Cathedral. 7. Victory over one's self is a victory (x) worth (x) talking of (which). 8. (It is) So much the better. 9. (I wish you) Good morning, Uncle; what a fine day it is!

“They all declared that he must be older than she.”



In this sentence the transitive verb, **declared**, has for its object the complex clause, **that he must be older than she**. **That**, being a word of euphony, is omitted. **She** is the subject of *is* understood.

2. Thy throne is established of old (time). 2. Forgive me (x) this once. 3. All (x) at once the sky was overcast. 4. What (would be the consequence) if an insurrection should break out? 5. We have more (x) than heart could wish (for which). 6. He brought^t

me more fruit than (that is which) is needed. 7. I shall procure only as many books as (those books are which) are needed. 8. A reward shall be given to whoever (him who) shall arrest the criminal. 9. At the time that (at which) I was there not a man was in sight. 10. They hurt themselves more than (they hurt) us. 11. I am older than he (is).

Remark.—The words in italics are used as the predicates in the following sentences. Such construction, though sanctioned by usage, should be avoided so far as possible.

1. He was *listened to* without a murmur. 2. Their enterprise is not to be *scoffed at*. 3. Vocal music was *made use of*. 4. It ought not to be *lost sight of*. 5. They were scoffed at by the multitude. (Page 60).

POSSESSIVE FORMED.

The **Possessive Form** of *singular nouns* and of plural nouns which do not end in *s* is made by annexing 's to the nominative; as, *John's* hat; *Hudson's* book; *men's* coats; *children's* shoes.

The **Possessive Form** of *plural nouns* ending in *s* is formed by annexing the apostrophe only; as, *boys'* hats; *girls'* shoes.

Some singular nouns ending in the sounds of *s* or *z*, take the *s*; others do not; as, *James's* book; *Wells's* history; For *goodness's* sake; For conscience' sake; *Perkins' Algebra*.

Remark.—In the following and similar constructions the possessive sign is given to the noun which stands next to the word modified by the possessive:

1. That portrait of your friend's should be varnished. 2. The Bishop of Dublin's palace. 3. Day & Wilson's grocery. 4. His Majesty, King Hubert's government. 5. My brother-in-law's residence. 6. My friend, the doctor's wife has been taken seriously ill. 7. The keeper of the forest's daughter has arrived.

RULES OF SYNTAX.

The numbers of the rules are placed in the diagrams with the words to which they apply.

RULE I. — A noun or pronoun used as the subject of a sentence is in the nominative case.

RULE II. — A noun or pronoun used as the predicate of a sentence is in the nominative case.

RULE III. — A noun or pronoun denoting possession is in the possessive case.

RULE IV. — A noun or pronoun used to limit the meaning of a noun or pronoun denoting the same person or thing is, by apposition, in the same case.

RULE V. — A noun or pronoun, used independently, is in the nominative absolute case.

RULE VI. — The object of a transitive verb is in the objective case.

RULE VII. — The object of a preposition is in the objective case.

RULE VIII. — A noun or pronoun used to modify a participle is in the possessive case.

RULE IX. — Pronouns must agree with their antecedents in person, gender and number.

RULE X. — A pronoun, with two or more antecedents in the singular, connected by *and*, must be plural.

RULE XI. — A pronoun, with two or more antecedents in the singular, connected by *or* or *nor*, must be singular.

RULE XII. — An adjective describes or defines some noun or pronoun.

RULE XIII. — A verb must agree with its subject in number and person.

RULE XIV. — A verb, with two or more subjects in the singular, connected by *and*, must be plural.

RULE XV. — A verb, with two or more subjects in the singular, connected by *or* or *nor*, must be singular.

RULE XVI. — The subject of an infinitive is in the objective case.

RULE XVII. — In Subjunctive Clauses the plural form of the verb is generally used, even with singular subjects.

RULE XVIII. — Adverbs modify verbs, adjectives and adverbs.

RULE XIX. — The verb, *to be*, takes the same case after it as before it.

RULE XX. — Co-ordinate conjunctions connect similar elements.

RULE XXI. — Subordinate conjunctions connect dissimilar elements.

RULE XXII. — An adjective and the noun which it modifies should agree in number.

RULE XXIII. — An adjective or participle, used as the predicate of a sentence, modifies the subject.

RULE XXIV. — A preposition shows the relation of its object to the word modified by the prepositional phrase.

PAGE 19.

Verbs are { Predicate, followed by an object, R. 6.
 { Predicate, “ “ no object.
 { Copulative, “ “ { Predicate or predicate, R. 2.
 { Predicate, R. 23.

Forms for correcting to be used in reviewing :

PAGE 23. — **Her** is a violation of Rule 2; it should have the nominative form, *she*.

PAGE 25. — **Slow** is an adverb and should have the adverbial form, *slowly*.

PAGE 27. — **He** is a violation of Rule 4; it should have the objective form, *him*, to agree with **brother**.

PAGE 34. — In **those** we find a violation of Rule 22; it should have the singular form, *that*.

PAGE 36. — Since **oldest** is used in comparing two persons it should have the comparative form, *older*.

FIGURATIVE LANGUAGE.

A Figure of Speech is an intentional deviation from the ordinary form, construction or application of words. Though admissible in both prose and poetry, they occur more frequently in the latter.

Remark.—The figures of speech usually presented by rhetoricians are very numerous. Only the most important are here defined.

Ellipsis is the omission of a word or words necessary to the construction of a sentence, but not essential to its meaning.

Examples.—“[He] who steals my purse, steals trash.” “To whom thus Eve [spoke].”

Pleonasm is the use of more words than are necessary.

Examples.—“The boy, oh! where was *he*?” “I know thee, *who thou art*?” “I saw it *with these eyes*.” All ye *inhabitants* of the world, and *dwellers on the earth*.”

Simile is the comparison of one object to another, and is generally denoted by *like*, *as* or *so*.

Examples.—“*Like a dog*, he hunts in dreams.”—*Tennyson*. “He shall be *like* a tree planted by the rivers of water.” “Thy smile is *as* the dawn of the vernal day.”

Metaphor is the expression of similitude without the signs of comparison.

Examples.—“He shall be a tree planted by the rivers of water.” “A *sea* of troubles.” “The moralist is a *scout* for consequences.” “The wish is *father* to the thought.”

Personification is the attributing of sex, life, or action to an inanimate object; or the ascribing of intelligence to an inferior creature.

Examples.—“O *Winter!* ruler of the inverted year.” “The earth mourneth and fadeth away.” “The Sea *saw it* and *fled*.” “The Worm, aware of his intent, *harangued* him thus.”

Vision, or Imagery, is the representation of past events, or imaginary objects and scenes, as actually present to the senses.

Examples.—“I see the rural virtues leave the land.”—*Goldsmith* “Greece cries to us by the convulsed lips of her poisoned, dying Demosthenes.”—*Everett*. “Caesar *leaves* Gaul, *crosses* the Rubicon, and *enters* Italy.” “They *rally*, they *bleed*, for their kingdom and crown.”

Irony is a mode of expression by which what is said is contrary to what is meant.

Examples.—“Cry aloud, for he is a god.” “No doubt but ye are the people, and wisdom will die with you.” “You are a pretty fellow!”

Apostrophe is a turning from the regular course of the subject, into an invocation or address.

Examples.—Ye toppling crags of ice!
Ye avalanches, whom a breath draws down,
In mountainous overwhelming, come and crush me.

—*Byron*.

Climax is the arrangement of a succession of words, clauses, members, or sentences, in such a way that the weakest may stand first, and that each in turn, to the end of the sentence, may rise in importance.

Examples.—“Who shall separate us? Shall *poverty*, or *misfortune*, or *tribulation*, or *distress*, or *persecution*, or *famine*, or *nakedness*, or *peril*, or *sword*!” “He was a great, noble, distinguished man.”

Hyperbole is the exaggeration of attributes, or the assigning to a subject of a wonderful and impossible act as the result of ardent emotion.

Examples.—“The land flows with milk and honey.” “The English gain two hours a day by clipping words.”—*Voltaire*. “They [Saul and Jonathan] were *swifter than eagles*, they were *stronger than lions*.” “And trembling Tiber *dived beneath his bed*.”

LETTERS.

Philadelphia, Pa., Dec. 14, 1889.

My Dear Parents:—

It is with mingled feelings of regret and pleasure that I announce the approaching close of my work as a student in this school. You will, in all probability, see me about the 24th of this month. My teachers have been exceedingly kind to me, and the numerous friends that I have made since my arrival at this place, have done much to make my stay a pleasant one.

When I reach home I sincerely trust that I shall find you both enjoying excellent health, and I hope that the improvement made by me during the year which is now drawing to a close, will cause you to feel satisfied for the many sacrifices you have made for me.

Your affectionate son,

Albert Hodgen.

WORD ANALYSIS.

“One hundred and forty thousand words: How shall we acquire a knowledge of them? The understanding seems hopeless. But here Etymology, with its Greek and Latin Roots, comes to our aid.”

“While it is true that there are over one hundred thousand words in our language, it is also true that the key to the meanings of a large portion of them is found in a few Root Words, numbering about three hundred.”

The Latin word *facio*, I make, enters into the composition of about six hundred words. Three thousand words are derived from the following ten easy roots words: *Capio*, I take. *Graphio*, I write. *Mitto*, I send. *Sedeo*, I sit. *Traho*, I draw. *Facio*, I make. *Logos*, reason. *Pono*, I place. *Sisto*, I stop.

“Those who have given little attention to the subject, would be astonished at the number of words into which a single prefix or suffix enters. Take, for example, the prefix *un*, meaning in verbs, to reverse the act of, as in the words *undo*, *untie*, *unbind*, and we shall find it probably in not less than seven thousand words. *Con*, with the various forms, *co*, *col*, *com*, probably enters into the composition of five thousand words.”

—From A. C. Webb's Manual of Etymology.

ORIGIN OF WORDS.

By actual count more than two-thirds of the words in our language are of Greek and Latin origin. Anglo-Saxon words are employed so much more extensively, however, owing to the constant repetition of adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions, auxiliaries, etc. (all of Anglo-Saxon origin), that, in ordinary composition, they greatly predominate. A knowledge of the Prefixes and Suffixes, together with the Greek, Latin and Anglo-Saxon roots here presented, is estimated to give a key to the meaning of more than thirty thousand of our most useful derivative English words. The course is recognized as a satisfactory substitute for a classical education.

A *Simple*, or *primitive*, word is a single significant term; as, *man*.

A *Complex* or *derivative* word is one formed from some other word by placing a modifying letter, syllable, or syllables before or after it; as, *manhood*.

A *Compound* word is two or more simple or complex words combined into one; as, *man-servant*.

A *Prefix* is the part of a complex word placed before the base; as, *anti-slavery*.

A *Suffix* is the part of a complex word placed after the base; as, *anti-slavery*.

The *Base* of a complex or compound word is the part representing the leading idea; as, *anti-slavery*.

Direction. — Learn the prefixes in all their forms and the meaning, which is given in *italics*. Analyze the words given as examples.

Remark.—The prefixes, suffixes and roots are arranged alphabetically and may be found as words are found in a dictionary. **L.** indicates Latin, **G.**, Greek and **A. S.** Anglo-Saxon.

Model.—In the word, **avert**, **a** means *from* or *away*; **abject**, **ab** means *from* or *away*; **abstain**, **abs.** *from* or *away*.

PREFIXES.

1. **A**, (**ab**, **abs**), **L.**, *from, away*; **avert**, **abject**, **abstain**.
2. **A**, (**an**), **G.**, *without, not*; **atheist**, **anarchy**, **apathy**.
3. **A**, **A. S.**, *at, to, in, on*; **abed**, **afar**, **astern**.
4. **Ad**, (**a**, **ac**, **af**, **ag**, **al**, **an**, **ap**, **ar**, **as**), **L.**, *to*; **adhere**, **accede**, **afflict**, **aggrieve**, **allude**, **announce**, **append**, **arrive**, **assign**.
5. **Ante**, (**anti**), **L.**, *before*; **antecedent**, **anticipate**.
6. **Anti**, (**aut**), **G.**, *against, over, opposite*; **antithesis**, **antarctic**.
7. **Be**, **A. S.**, *to make, all over*; **bedaub**, **benumb**, **befriend**.
8. **Bi**, (**bis**), **L.**, *two*; **biped**, **bisextile**, **biscuit**.
9. **Circum**, (**circu**), **L.**, *around*; **circumference**, **circuit**.
10. **Con**, (**co**, **cog**, **col**, **com**, **cor**), **L.**, *with, together*; **converse**, **cohere**, **cognate**, **collect**, **compose**, **correspond**.
11. **Contra**, (**contro**, **counter**), **L.**, *against*; **contradict**, **controvert**, **counteract**.
12. **De**, **L.**, *down, from*; **depend**, **deduce**, **descend**.
13. **Dis**, (**di**, **dif**), **L.**, *asunder, apart, the opposite of*; **disable**, **diverge**, **differ**.
14. **En**, (**Em**), **G.**, *in, on*; **encircle**, **emphasis**, **enthusiast**.
15. **En**, (**em**, **im**), **L.**, *to make*; **enable**, **empower**, **impoverish**.
16. **Epi**, **G.**, *upon*; **epitaph**, **epidemic**, **epigram**.
17. **Ex**, (**e**, **ec**), **L.**, *out, from*; **exclaim**, **export**, **educate**, **eccentric**.
18. **Extra**, **L.**, *beyond*; **extraordinary**, **extravagant**.
19. **Fore**, **A. S.**, *before*; **foretell**, **forenoon**, **forebode**, **foreman**.
20. **For**, **A. S.**, *not, from*; **forget** (to get from; i. e. away from the mind), **forbid**, **forbear**.
21. **In**, (**il**, **im**, **ir**), **L.**, in verbs and nouns means *in, into, on, upon*; **include**, **inhale**, **illusion**, **impel**, **irruption**.
22. **In**, (**ig**, **il**, **im**, **ir**), **L.**, in adjectives means *not*; **insane**, **ignoble**, **illegal**, **immoral**, **irregular**.

23. **Inter**, L., *between, among*; **intercede**, **international**.
24. **Mis**, A. S., *wrong*; **misguide**, **misconduct**, **misplace**.
25. **Non**, L., *not*; **non-conductor**, **non-combatant**, **nondescript**.
26. **Ob**, (oc, of, op), L., *in the way, against*; **obtrude**, **occur**, **offend**, **oppress**, **object**.
27. **Out**, A. S., *beyond, more than*; **outdo**, **outlive**, **outbid**.
28. **Over**, A. S., *above*; **overhang**, **overturn**, **overrule**.
29. **Per**, (pel), L., *through, thoroughly*; **pervade**, **perceive**, **pellucid**.
30. **Post**, L., *after, behind*; **postscript**, **postmortem**.
31. **Pre**, L., *before*; **prefix**, **precede**, **prevent**.
32. **Pro**, L., *for, forward*; **pronoun**, **proclaim**, **propel**, **progress**.
33. **Re**, L., *back, anew*; **return**, **revoke**, **reclaim**, **recollect**.
34. **Retro**, L., *backward*; **retrograde**, **retrospect**.
35. **Se**, L., *aside, apart*; **secede**, **separate**.
36. **Sub**, (suc, suf, sup, sus), L., *under, below*; **subscribe**, **succeed**, **suffuse**, **suppress**, **suspend**.
37. **Super**, (sur), L., *above, over*; **superfine**, **surmount**.
38. **Syn**, (syl), G., *together, with*; **synthesis**, **syllable**.
39. **Trans**, (tra), L., *across, beyond, over*; **transpose**, **traduce**.
40. **Un**, A. S., *before a verb means to take off, to reverse*; **unroll**, **undo**; *Before an adjective, not*; **unable**, **uncertain**.
41. **Under**, A. S., *under, beneath*; **underbid**, **undermine**.
42. **With**, A. S., *from, against*; **withstand**, **withdraw**.

SUFFIXES.

Direction.—Learn all the different forms which the suffixes assume in the formation of words, and the **meaning**, which is given in *italics*. Analyze the words given as examples.

1. **Able**, (ible, ble), L., *able, that may be, fit to be, worthy of*; **amicable**, **blamable**, **soluble**, **teachable**, **digestible**, **visible**.
2. **Ably**, (ibly, bly), L., *state of being*; **amicably**, **perceptibly**.
3. **Aceous**, (acious), L., *full of, like, having the quality of*; **crustaceous**, **pugnacious**.
4. **Acy**, L., *being, state of being*; **accuracy**, **celibacy**, **privacy**.
5. **Age**, F., *state of being, that which, allowance for, collection of, act of*; **bondage**, **wharfage**, **cartage**, **carriage**, **foliage**, **herbage**.

6. **Al**, (*ial, eal*), *L.*, of, pertaining to, act of; **naval**, **mental**, **social**, **paternal**, **removal**, **filial**, **perusal**, **renewal**, **recital**, **monitorial**, **corporeal**.

7. **An**, (*n, ain, ian*), *L.*, belonging to, relating to, one who; **Republican**, **captain**, **American**, **Christian**, **plebeian**.

8. **Ance**, (*ancy*), *L.*, being, state of being, act of; **Constancy**, **ignorance**, **repentance**, **abundance**.

9. **Ant**, *L.*, one who, that which; **assistant**, **defendant**, **dependant**, **observant**, **pleasant**.

10. **Ar**, *L.*, one who, of, like, pertaining to; **globular**, **circular**.

11. **Ard**, (*art*), *A. S.*, one who, that which; **sluggard**, **braggart**.

12. **Ary**, *L.*, one who, the place where, pertaining to; **adversary**, **missionary**, **aviary**, **apiary**, **lunary**, **boundary**.

13. **Ate**, *L.*, one who, to make, full of, having or being; **animate**, **renovate**, **regulate**, **desperate**, **passionate**, **facilitate**, **debilitate**.

14. **Cle**, (*cule*), *L.*, little, small; **animalcule**, **corpuscle**.

15. **Dom**, *A. S.*, domain of, state of being; **kingdom**, **dukedom**.

16. **Ed**, *A. S.*, did; **relieved**, **trusted**, **magnified**.

17. **Ee**, *F.*, one to whom, one who; **absentee**, **refugee**, **mortgagee**.

18. **Eer**, (*ier*), *F.*, one who; **grenadier**, **auctioneer**, **brigadier**.

19. **En**, *A. S.*, small, made of, to make; **maiden**, **kitten**, **moisten**.

20. **Ence**, (*ency*), *L.*, being, state of being, act of; **innocency**, **eloquence**, **existence**, **absence**, **diligence**, **impudence**.

21. **Ent**, (*lent*), *L.*, being, one who, that which; **potent**, **agent**, **president**, **student**, **pestilent**, **violent**, **virulent**.

22. **Er**, *A. S.*, more, one who, that which; **greater**, **builder**, **tender**, **fender**, **biographer**, **philosopher**.

23. **Ery**, (*ry*), *A. S.*, place, condition; **gentry**, **pantry**, **flowery**.

24. **Es**, (*see s*).

25. **Escence**, *L.*, state of becoming; **convalescence**.

26. **Escent**, *L.*, becoming; **convalescent**, **quiescent**.

27. **Ess**, (*ress*), *F.*, female; **lioness**, **shepherdess**, **conductress**.

28. **Est**, *A. S.*, most; **largest**, **homeliest**, **hottest**.

29. **Ful**, *A. S.*, full of; **truthful**, **watchful**, **deceitful**, **joyful**.

30. **Fy**, *L.*, to make; **qualify**, **rectify**, **beautify**, **fortify**, **purify**.

31. **Hood**, *A. S.*, state or quality of being; **childhood**, **girlhood**.

32. **Ic**, *L.*, like, made of, pertaining to; **academic**, **oceanic**, **astronomical**, **academical**, **cubical**.

33. **Ice**, *L.*, person, the thing, that; **notice**, **service**.

34. **Ics**, (**ic**), *G.*, *the science of, the art of*; **ethics**, **arithmetic**.
35. **Id**, *L.*, *quality, pertaining to*; **frigid**, **splendid**, **torrid**.
36. **Ile**, *L.*, *belonging to, may or can be*; **fragile**, **febrile**, **juvenile**.
37. **Ine**, *L.*, *pertaining to*; **feminine**, **infantine**, **canine**, **heroine**.
38. **Ing**, *A. S.*, *the act of continuing*; **building**, **rehearsing**.
39. **Ion**, *L.*, *the art of, state of being*; **expansion**, **rebellion**.
40. **Ise**, (**ize**), *G.*, *to make*; **idolize**, **criticise**, **scrutinize**.
41. **Ish**, *A. S.*, *to make, somewhat, like*; **brownish**, **Spanish**.
42. **Ism**, *G.*, *state of being, doctrine*; **heroism**, **spiritualism**.
43. **Ist**, *G.*, *an agent, one who*; **artist**, **theorist**, **homeopathist**.
44. **Ite**, *L.*, *one who is, being*; **favorite**, **millerrite**.
45. **Ity**, (**ty**), *L.*, *being or state of being*; **equality**, **immensity**.
46. **Ive**, *L.*, *that which, one who, having power*; **inventive**, **protective**, **captive**, **relative**, **corrective**.
47. **Ix**, *L.*, *a female*; **administratrix**, **testamentrix**, **executrix**.
48. **Less**, *A. S.*, *without*; **homeless**, **toothless**, **worthless**.
49. **Like**, *A. S.*, *resembling*; **homelike**, **warlike**, **manlike**.
50. **Ling**, *A. S.*, *little, young*; **darling**, **seedling**, **fondling**.
51. **Ly**, *A. S.*, *like, manner*; **friendly**, **softly**, **smoothly**, **kindly**.
52. **Ment**, *L.*, *state of being, act of, thing that*; **ornament**, **punishment**, **acquirement**, **elopement**, **concealment**, **movement**.
53. **Mony**, *L.*, *state of being, thing that*; **matrimony**, **testimony**.
54. **Ness**, *A. S.*, *being or state of being*; **tenderness**, **loveliness**.
55. **Or**, *L.*, *one who, thing that*; **director**, **inspector**, **error**, **debtor**.
56. **Ory**, *L.*, *relating to, the place where, the thing that*; **prefatory**, **factory**, **explanatory**, **purgatory**.
57. **Ous**, (**eous**, **ious**, **ose**), *L.*, *full of, consisting of*; **dangerous**, **victorious**, **righteous**, **beauteous**, **dubious**, **verbose**, **jocose**.
58. **Ry**, (**ery**), *A. S.*, *a being, the art, collection, the place where*; **bravery**, **knavery**, **cooper**, **entry**, **jewelry**.
59. **S**, or **es**, *A. S.*, *more than one*; **annals**, **benches**, **judges**; **s**, **eth** and **est** are used with verbs that have a singular subject; **he loves**, **he loveth**, **thou lovest**.
60. **'S** or **'**, *A. S.*, *his, the sign of the possessive of nouns*; **friend's** **council**, **horses' heads**.
61. **Ship**, *A. S.*, *office of, state of*; **friendship**, **township**.
62. **Some**, *A. S.*, *somewhat, causing, full of*; **gladsome**, **wearisome**, **lightsome**, **frolicsome**.
63. **Ster**, *A. S.*, *one who*; **roadster**, **teamster**.

64. Tude, L., *being, or state of being; attitude, altitude.*
65. Ure, (ture), L., *the thing, state of being, act of; creature, feature, fixture, scripture, exposure, seizure, capture.*
66. Ward, A. S., *direction of; homeward, heavenward.*
67. Wise, A. S., *manner; crosswise, likewise, sidewise.*
68. Y, (ey), A. S., *state of being, full of, made of; honesty, consistency, bloody, watery, rocky, clayey, thorny, cloudy.*

GREEK, LATIN AND ANGLO-SAXON ROOTS AND PARONYMS.

1. **Æquus**, *æqualis*, L., *equal; equal, co-, un-, in-, -ity -ize; equate, ad-, in-, -ion; equity; equitably; iniquity; iniquitous.*
2. **Aer**, G., *the air; aer, -ial, -iform; aerolite, aeronaut; air, -y.*
3. **Ago**, L., *I do, I drive; ag, -ent, -ency, -ile, -ity, agitate, -ion; act, counter-, en-, ex-, re-, over-, trans-, -ive, -ity, -ly, -ion, -or, ment, -ness; exigent; exigency; manage (manus), -er, -ment; navigate (navis), circum-, -ion, or; navigable.*
4. **Amicus**, L., *a friend; amic, -able, -ably; inimical.*
5. **Amo**, L., *I love; amor, en-, -ous; ami, un- -able, -ably, ability, -ty; amateur.*
6. **Anima**, L., *life, the soul; anim, in-, ate, -ed, -ion, -osity; equanimity; magnanimous (magnus); unanimous (unus).*
7. **Annus**, L., *a year; annu, -al -ity, -ly; enni, bi-, per-, sept-, tri-, mille-, al, -um; anniversary (verto); annal, -s, -ist.*
8. **Arche**, G., *beginning; government; archæology; archive; anarchy; heptarchy; hierarchy; monarch; oligarchy; patriarch.*
9. **Arma**, L., *weapons; arm, dis-, un-, -ed, -or, ory, -s, -y; armament; armistice; Armada.*
10. **Ars**, L., *art; art, -full, -ist, -less, -ness; artifice, -ial; art-isan; artistic.*
11. **Astron**, G., *a star; asterisk; asteroid; astral; astrol-ogy; astrologer, astronomy; astronomic; -al; disaster.*
12. **Audio**, L., *I hear; audi, in-, -ble, -bly, -ence; audit (eo) -or, -ory.*
13. **Beacnian**, A. S., *to signal; beckon, -ed, -ing; beacon.*

14. **Beatan**, A. S., *to strike*; **beat**, -ing; **battle**; **beetle**.

15. **Bene**, L., *good, well*; **benedict** (dico), -ion; **benefact** (facio), -or, -ion, -ress; **benevolence** (volo); **benefit** (flo); **beneficial**; **beneficent**.

16. **Beorgan**, A. S., *to hide, borough*; **burglar**; **burrow**; **harbor**.

17. **Beran**, A. S., *to carry*; **bear**, un-, -able, -er, -ing; **berth**; **bier**; **birth**; **burden**.

18. **Bindan**, A. S., *to fasten*; **bind**, re-, un-, er, -ing; **band**; **bond**; **bound**; **bundle**.

19. **Byrnan**, A. S., *to burn*; **burn**; **brand**, fire-, -ed, -ing; **brandy**; **brimstone**; **brown**; **burnt**; **auburn**.

20. **Capio**, L., *I take*; **cap**, in-, -able, -ability; **capt**, -or, -ure, -ious, -ive, -ity, -ate; **cept**, ac-, con-, de-, ex-, in-, inter-, pre-, re-, sus-, -ance, -ation, -ion, -ive, -ible, -or; **receptacle**; **cip**, anti-, -ate, -ation; **incipient**; **participate** (pars).

21. **Caput**, L., *the head*; **cap**, -tion; **capit**, de-, re-, -ate, -al, -ist, -tion; **captain**, -cy; **precipice**; **precipitant**; **precipitate**; **capitulate**; **chieftain**.

22. **Carbo**, L., *coal*; **carbon**, -aceous, -ate, -ic, -ize; **carboniferous** (fero).

23. **Caro**, L., *flesh*; **carn**, in-, -ate, -age, -al, -ity, -ion; **carnival**; **carnivorous**.

24. **Cedo**, L., *I go, I yield*; **cease**, de-, -less; **ceed**, ex-, pro-, suc-, -ed, -ing; **cede**, ac-, ante-, con-, inter-, pre-, un-, se-, re-, -ent, -ence, -ed, -ure; **cess**, ac-, in-, inter-, con-, pro-, suc-, -ion, -ible, -ant, -or, -full, -ive.

25. **Centrum**, L., *the center*; **centr**, con-, ec-, -ate, -ic, -ity, -al; **centrifugal** (fugio); **centripetal** (peto); **center**, -ed.

26. **Centum**, L., *a hundred*; **cent**, per-, -age, **centenary**, -an, **centennial** (annum) **centigrade** (gradior); **centipede** (pes); **centurion**; **century**.

27. **Clamo**, L., *I call, I cry out*; **clamat**, ac-, de-, ex-, pro-, -ion, -ory, -or; **claim**, ac-, de-, dis-, ex-, pro-, re-, un-, -ant, -ed, -ing; **clamor**, -er, -ous.

28. **Cor**, L., *the heart*; **cord**, ac-, con-, dis-, re-, -ial, -ity, -ance, -ant, -er; **cour**, en-, dis-, -age, -ous, -ment; **core**, -ed.

29. **Corpus**, L., *the body*; **corpor**, in-, -ate, -ion, -al, -eal; **corset**; **corselet**; **corpulent**; **corpuscle**; **corps**; **corpse**.

30. Credo, L., *I believe, I trust to*; cred, in-, -ence, -ible, -ity; credit, dis-, -able, -or; credul, in-, -ous, -ity; creed.

31. Cuman, A. S., *to come*; come, be-, wel-, un-, -ly, -ness.

32. Cura, L., *care, safe*; cur, ac-, in-, -ate, -acy, -ness, -able, -ive, -or; curious, curiosity; cure, se-, in-, -ity; sure, as-, re-, en-, in-, -ty, -ance, -able.

33. Curro, L., *I run*; cur, con-, ex-, in-, oc-, -ence, -sion, -ent, -ency; course, con-, dis-, inter-, re-, -ed, -ing, -er; cuss, dis-, ex-, in-, per-, -ive, -ion, -ist, or; courier, succor.

34. Damnum, L., *loss, harm*; damn, -able, -ation; dam, -age, -able; danger, -ous; demn, con-, in-, -ation, -atory, -ify, -ity, indemnification.

35. Decem, L., *ten*; decim, -al, -ate; decimo, duo-; December; decennial (annus); decemvirate (vir).

36. Demos, G., *the people*; democrat; democracy (kratos); demagogue; endemic; epidemic.

37. Dens, L., *a tooth*; dent, in-, -ation, -al, -ist, -ure; dentifrice; edentata; trident; rodent; dandelion.

38. Deor, A. S., *dear*; dear, en-, -er, -est; darling; dearth.

39. Deus, L., *a god*; de, -ify, -ist, -ism, -ic, -al, -ity; divine, -ation, -ity; deification.

40. Dico, L., *I proclaim, I set apart*; dic, ab-, de-, in-, pre-, -ate, -ation, -ve, -or; index: predicament.

41. Dico, L., *I say*; diet, ad-, bene-, contra-, e-, in-, -ate, -or, -ion, -ial; -ory, -ed, -ment; indite; dictionary.

42. Dies, L., *a day*; di, -al, -ary; meridian, ante-, post-; diurnal.

43. Doceo, L., *I teach*; doc, -ile, -ity; doct, -or; document; doctrine, -al.

44. Dom, A. S., *judgment*; doom, -ed; dooms-day.

45. Drifan, A. S., *to drive*; drift, -ed, ing; drift-wood; drive, -er, -ing.

46. Drinean, A. S., *to drink*; drink, -ing, -er; drunk, -ard, -en; drench, -ed,

47. Dripan, A. S., *to drip*; drip, -ing; drop, -ed, ing; droop, -ed, -ing; dribble; drivel.

48. Duco, L., *I lead, I bring forward*; duce, ad-, con-, de-, e-, in-, super-, intro-, pro-, re-, tra-, -ive, -ment, -er, -ible; duct, ab-, con-, de-, in-, intro-, pro-, re-, -ile, -ion, -or, -ory, -ive, -ity; aqueduct; viaduct (via).

49. Dno, L., *two*; **du**, -al; **duel**, -ist; **duplicate**; **duplicity**; **double**; **doubt**, un-, -ful, -less, -ed; **dubious**.

50. Durus, L., *hard, lasting*; **dure**, en-, ob-, -able, -ness, ability, -ance, -ate, -ion, -acy.

51. Emo, L, *I buy, I take*; **empt**, ex-, per-, pre-, -ion, -ory; **redeem**; **redemption**.

52. Eo, (it), L., *I go, I pass*; **it**, ex-, trans-, in-, -ion, -al, -ive, -ory; **itinerant**; **ambition**; **initial**; **initiatory**; **transient**.

53. Esse, L., *to be*; **ess**, -ence; **est**, inter-, dis-, -ing, -ed; **ent**, abs-, non-, -ee, -ity; **ence**, abs-; **present**, omni-, re-, mis-, -ly, -ation, -ative; **quintessence**.

54. Facilis, L., *easy*; **facile**, -ity, -ate; **difficult**, -y.

55. Facio, L., *I make, or do*; **fact**, -or, -ion; **benefactor (bene)**; **manufacture (manus)**; **fect**, af-, de-, ef-, in-, per-, im-, dis-, un-, -ation, -ion, -ing, -ate, -ed, -ive, -ual; **feci**, de-, ef-, of-, pro-, suf-, in-, -ent, -ency, -cial; **deficit**; **officer**; **suffice**; **feature**; **fashion**, -able.

56. Faran, A. S., *to go*; **fare** -ed; **farewell**; **ferry**; **ford**, -ed; **welfare**.

57. Fedan, A. S., *to feed*; **feed**; **food**; **foster**; **father**.

58. Fendo, L., *I keep off, I strike*; **fend**, de-, of-, -er, -ant; **fence**, -er, -ing; **fense**, de-, in-, -less, -ible, -ive.

59. Fero, (latum), L., *I bear, I carry*; **fert**, -ile, -ity, -ize; **fer**, circum-, con-, de-, dif-, in-, pre-, pro-, re-, suf-, trans-, -ence, -ent, -ed, -able, -ment, -ee, -ing; **deferential**; **pestiferous**; **vociferous**; **late**, col-, di-, e-, pre-, re-, super-, trans-, -ion, -ory, -ive.

60. Figo, L., *I fix, I join*; **fix**, af-, pre-, suf-, trans-, -ture; **crucifix**.

61. Fluo, L., *I flow*; **fluo**, af-, con-, in-, super-, -ent-, -ency, -id, -ial, -ous, -ity; **fluctuate**, -ion; **influx**.

62. Fortis, L., *strong, brave*; **fort**, com-, un-, ef-, -ify, -able, -less; **force**, en-, re-, -ible, -ment; **fortress**, **fortitude**; **fortification**.

63. Fot, A. S., *the foot*; **foot**; **fetter**; **fetlock**.

64. Frango, L., *I break*; **fract**, re-, -ion, -al, -ious, -ure; **frag**, -ile, -ment, -ary; **frang**, re-, -ible; **fring**, in-, -ment; **frail**, -ty; **refrain**.

65. Frater, L., *brother*; **fratern**, -al, -ity, -ize; **friar**; **fratricide**.

66. Frigis, L., *cold*; **frig**, -id, -ity; **refrigerate**, -ion, or.

67. **Fugio**, L., *I flee*; **fugit**, -ive; **fuge**, re-, subter-, -ee; centri-fugal.

68. **Ful**, A. S., *unclean*; **defile**, -ed; **filth**; **foul**; **fulsome**.

69. **Fundo**, (fusom), L., *I pour*; **fund**, re- -ing, -ed; **fuse**, con-, dif-, ef-, in-, pro-, re-, suf-, trans-, -ible, -ion, -ive; **futile**; **con-found**; **refute** -ation.

70. **Fyr**, A. S., *the fire*; **fire**; **flery**; **fireworks**; **bonfire**.

71. **Geard**, A. S., *an enclosure*; **yard**; **orchard**; **garden**.

72. **Getan**, A. S., *to get*; **get**, -ing; **forget**; **got**, en.

73. **Gifan**, A. S., *to give*; **give**, for-, mis-, -ing; **gave**.

74. **Grador**, L., *I walk*; **grade**, de-, retro-, -ation; **gress**, ag-, con-, di-, e-, in-, pro-, retro-, trans-, -ion, -or, -ive; **gradu**, under-, -al, -ate, -ation.

75. **Grafan**, A. S., *to dig*; **grave**, en-, -er; **graft**, -ed, -ing; **groove**; **grove**; **grub**, -ed, ing.

76. **Gramma**, G., *a letter*; **gram**, ana-, dia-, epi-, mono-, pro-, -ar, -ian; **grammatical**; **telegram**.

77. **Grapho**, G., *I write*; **graph**, auto-, bio-, geo-, lexico-, lith-, ortho-, photo-, steno-, tele-, topo-, typo-, -y, -er, -ic.

78. **Gravis**, L., *heavy*; **grave**, ag-, -ity, -ate, -ion; **grieve**, ag-, -ance, -ous; **grief**; **gravitation**.

79. **Habban**, A. S., *to possess*; **have**, be-, -ing, -ior.

80. **Habeo**, L., *I have, I hold*; **habit**, in-, re-, -able, -ant, -ation; **hibit**, ex-, pro-, -ion, -or; **habiliment**; **able**, en-, dis-, -ity.

81. **Heard**, A. S., *hard*; **hard**, -en, -ship, -y; **hardware**.

82. **Hospes**, L., *a host, a guest*; **host**, -ess; **hospit**, in-, -al, -able, -ity; **hostler**; **hotel**.

83. **Jacio**, L., *I throw, I cast*; **ject**, ab-, ad-, con-, de-, e-, in-, inter-, ob-, pro-, re-, sub-, -ure, -al, -ed, -ion, -ment, -able, -ive, -or, -ile; **ejaculate**, -ion, -ory; **jetty**; **jnt**.

84. **Jungo**, L., *I join*; **junct**, ad-, con-, dis-, in-, sub-, -ion, -ure, -ive; **join**, ad-, en-, con-, dis-, re-, sub-, -ed, -er; **rejoinder**; **conjug-al**; **conjugate**, -ion; **joint**, -ed.

85. **Jus**, L., *right, law*; **just**, in-, -ice, -ify, -ness; **jurist**; **justi-fication**; **jurisdiction** (dico); **injure**, -y, -ous.

86. **Kratos**, G., *strength, government*; **crat**, aristo-, demo-, -ic; **cra**, aristo-, demo-, theo-, -cy.

87. **Leegan**, A. S., *to lie*; **lay**; **lair**; **law**; **lea**; **ledge**; **lie**; **low**; **outlaw**; **lying**.

88. **Lego**, L., *I gather, I read*; **leg**, il-, e-, in-, ible-, ibility, -ant, -ance, -ion, -end; **lect**, col-, re-, -ec, e-, se-, ion, ic, -ive, or; **diligent**; **eligible**; **intellect**, -ual; **intelligent**.

89. **Lex**, L., *law, a rule*, **leg**, il-, -al, -ity, -ize; **legislate** (**latum**; see **fero**), -ion, -or, -ure; **privilege**, **legitimate**.

90. **Liber**, L., *free*; **liber**, il-, -al, -ity, -ate, -or, -ty; **deliver**, -ance, -y.

91. **Litera**, L., *a letter*; **liter**, il-, al-, ob-, -al, -ary, -ate, -ion, **literature**.

92. **Locus**, L., *a place*; **loc**, dis-, col-, -al, -ize, -ity, -ate, -ion; **locomotive**.

93. **Logos**, L., *a speech, a reason, a description*; **log**, apo-, doxo-, etymo-, genea-, geo-, minera-, mytho-, ornitho-, philo-, phreno-, physio-, psycho-, tauto-, techno-, zoo-, -ic, -al, -ian, -y, -ize, ist; **logue**, apo-, cata-, deca-, pro-.

94. **Lufe**, A. S., *love*; **love**, un-, -able, -er, -ing, -ly, -est.

95. **Magnus**, L., *great, large, grand*; **magni**, -fy, -tude; **magnificent** (**facio**); **magnanimous** (**anima**); **major**, -ity, **majesty**; **mayor**; **magistrate**; **master**.

96. **Mando**, L., *I command, I commit*; **mand**, com-, de-, -ate, -ory, -er, -ment; **mend**, com- re-, -able, -ing; **commendatory**.

97. **Manus**, L., *the hand*; **manu**, -al; **manuscript** (**scribo**); **manufacture** (**facio**), -ed, -er, -ing; **manufactory**; **manipulate**, -ion, -or; **mana**, -cle; **emancipate** (**capio**), -ion, -or.

98. **Mater**, L., *a mother*; **matri**, -mony, -al; **matron**, -ly; **maternal**; **maternity**.

99. **Memini**, L., *I remember*, **memor**, com-, im-, -able, -ate, -ion, -ive, -ial, -ize, -y; **remember**; **memorandum**.

100. **Metron**, G., *a measure*; **metr**, dia-, geo-, sym-, -ic, -al, -ian, -y; **mete**; **meter**, dia-, gas- or gaso-; **aneometer**; **barometer**; **hexameter**; **hydrometer**; **hygrometer**; **perimeter**; **thermometer**; **trigonometry**.

101. **Migro**, L., *I move from one place to another*; **migr**, em-, im-, trans-, -ate, -ion, -ory, -ant.

102. **Mitto**, L., *I send, I let go*; **mit**, ad-, com-, de-, e-, inter-, o-, per-, re-, sub- trans-, -ance, -ee, -ent, -ed; **mis**, ad-, com-, inter-, o-, pre-, pro, re-, sub-, -ible, -ion, -ed, -er, -ary, -ible, -ile, -ive; **compromise**; **surmise**.

103. **Mona**, A. S., *the moon*; **moon**; **Monday**; **month**.

104. Moneo, L., *I remind, I warn*; **monit**, ad-, pre-, -ion, -or, -y, -ial; **monu**, -ment, -al; **mon**, ad-, pre-, -ish, -er; **summons**.

105. Monos, G., *alone*; **monk**; **monastery**; **monomania**; **monopolize**; **monosyllable**; **monotheism**; **monotone**; **monotonous**; **monotony**.

106. Mors, L., *death*; **mort**, im-, -al, -ize, -ify; **mortification**; **mortuary**; **murder**, -er, -ous.

107. Moveo, L., *I move*; **mov**, im-, -able; **move**, re-, -ment, -er; **mot**, com-, e-, pro-, -ion, -al, -less, -ive, -or, -er; **promote**; **remote**, -ness; **mobile**; **momentum**.

108. Mynd, A. S., *the mind*; **mind**, re-, -ful.

109. Navis, L., *a ship*; **nav**, -al, -y; **navigate** (ago), -ed, -or; **navigable**, circum-.

110. Nomen, L., *a name*; **nomin**, de-, -al, -ate, -ion, -ee, -or; **misnomer**; **cognomen**; **pronoun**.

111. Numerus, L., *a number*; **numer**, e-, in-, -al, -ate, -ion, -ic, -ous, -able; **number**; **supernumerary**.

112. Nuncio, L., *I announce*; **nunci**, de-, e-, pro-, ate, -ion; **nounce**, an-, de-, pro-, re-, -able, -ment.

113. Ode, G., *a poem, an ode*; **melody**, -ous; **parody**, **prosody**; **psalmody**; **rhapsody**.

114. Ordo, L., *order, rank*; **ordin**, co-, extra-, in-, pre-, sub-, -ate, -ion, -ance, -ary; **ordain**; **order**, -ly.

115. Pan, G., *all, the whole*; **panacea**; **pancreas**; **pandemonium**; **panegyric**; **panorama**; **pantheism**; **pantomime**.

116. Paro, L., *I prepare, I get ready*; **pare**, com-, pre-, in-, -ative, -able, -ation, -atory; **apparel**; **repair**; **comparison**; **separate**, in-, -able.

117. Pars, L., *a part, a share*; **part**, a-, com-, counter-, de-, im-, -ed, -ial, -ity, -ment, -ure, -y; **partner**; **participate**, -ion; **particle**; **particular**, -ize; **partisan**; **partition**.

118. Pater, L., *a father*; **pater**, -nal; **paternity**; **patron**, -ess, -age, -ize; **patriot**, com-, -ic, -ism; **patrician**; **patrimony**; **expatiate**, -ion.

119. Pathos, G., *suffering, feeling*; **pathetic**, sym-; **pathology** (logos); **allopathy**, -ic; **homeopathy**; -ic, **apathy**; **antipathy**; **sympathy**, -ize.

120. Pello, L., *I drive*; **pel**, com-, dis-, ex-, pro-, re-; **pulse**, com-, ex-, im-, re-, -ate, -ion, -ory, -ive.

121. Pendeo, L., *I hang*; **pend**, ap-, de-, in-, -ant, -ing, -age, -ence, -ent; **appendix**; **pendulum**; **suspense**; -ion; **pensile**.

122. Pendo, L., *to weigh, to pay*; **pend**, com-, ex-, -iture; **stipend**; **pense**, com-, dis-, in-, ex-, recom-, -ate, -able, -ive, -ion, -er, -ary.

123. Pes, L., *the foot*; **ped**, bi-, ex-, im-, -al, -ient, -iency, -ite, -ion, -ious, -iment, -ler, **pedestrian**; **quadruped**.

124. Peto, L., *I attack, I seek*; **pete**, com-, in-, -ent, -ence; **centripetal**; **petit**, com-, re-, -ion, -er, -or; **petulant**; **impetus**; **impetuous**; **impetuosity**.

125. Philos, G., *a friend, a lover*; **philosophy**, -er, -ic, -al; **Philadelphia**; **philanthropy**; **philology** (logos); **philharmonic**.

126. Phusis, G., *nature*; **phys**, meta-, -ic, -al, -ian, **physiology** (logos), -ist; **physiognomy**, -ist.

127. Polis, G., *a city*; **police**, -man; **policy**; **politic**, -al, -ian, -s; **polity**; **metropolis**; **micropolis**; **cosmopolitan**.

128. Pono, L., *I place*; **pone**, com-, de-, op-, post-, -ent, -ment, **pose**, com-, de-, dis-, ex-, im-, in-, inter-, op-, pro-, pur-, re-, sup-, trans-, -er, -ite, -or, -ure, -al; **posite**, com-, de-, dis-, ex-, -im, inter-, op-, pro-, sup-, -ion-, -or, -ary, -ory; **juxtaposition**; **compound**, -ed, -ing; **post**, com-, im-, -age.

129. Porto, L., *I carry*; **port**, ex-, im-, pur-, re-, sup-, in-, trans-, -ance, -ant, -ation, -able, -er; **portune**, im-, op-, -ity; **portfolio**; **portmanteau**.

130. Prehendo, L., *I lay hold of, I seize*; **prehend**, ap-, com-, re-, -ed; **prehense**, ap-, com-, re-, -ion, -ive, -ible; **comprise**; **enterprise**; **surprise**; **prison**; **reprieve**.

131. Probo, L., *I try, I prove*; **prob**, im-, ap-, dis-, rep-, -able, -ability, -ation, -ary, -ity, -ate; **prove**, ap-, dis-, im-, re-, -al, -ment, -ing; **reproof**.

132. Reafian, A. S., *to seize*; **bereave**; **riye**; **rob**, -er; **rove**.

133. Rego, L., *I rule*; **reg**, -al, -ent, -ency; **regulate**; **regicide**; **regiment**; **regular**; -ity; **regalia**; **rect**, cor-, di-, e-, in-, -ly, -ion, -ify, -or; **rectitude**; **incorrigible**; **reign**.

134. Ridan, A. S., *to ride*; **ride**, -er, -ing, **road**; **roadster**.

135. Rumpo, L., *I break*; **rupt**, ab-, cor-, in-, dis-, e-, inter-, ir-, un-, -ly, -ness, -ible, -ion, -ed; **bankrupt**, -cy.

136. Sceofan, A. S., *to push*; **shove**; **shovel**; **scuffle**; **shuffle**; **sheaf**.

Buffalo, N. Y., Jan. 15, 1890.

Messrs. Hawkins, Haste & Co.,

Cleveland, Ohio.

Gentlemen,—

In reply to your advertisement in to-day's *Spectator*, for a clerk competent to take charge of a set of books, and conversant with the forms of mercantile correspondence, I beg to offer my services.

I have been in the employ of Mr. Jas. Brown for the past two years, but about two months ago he informed me of his desire to take a relative into his house, and dispense with the services of one clerk.

He permits me to refer to him for testimonial of character and ability.

Trusting that you will favor me with an interview, I have, gentlemen, the honor to be,

Yours, very respectfully,

Henry H. Gordon.

ABBREVIATIONS.

Ala.,	Alabama.	Kan.,	Kansas.
A. Ter.,	Arizona Territory.	Ky.,	Kentucky.
Ark.,	Arkansas.	La.,	Louisiana.
Cal.,	California.	Mass.,	Massachusetts.
Col.,	Colorado.	Me.,	Maine.
Conn.,	Connecticut.	Md.,	Maryland.
D. C.,	District of Columbia.	Mich.,	Michigan.
Del.,	Delaware.	Minn.,	Minnesota.
Fla.,	Florida.	Miss.,	Mississippi.
Ga.,	Georgia.	Mo.,	Missouri.
Ill.,	Illinois.	M. Ter.,	Montana Territory.
Ind.,	Indiana.	N. C.,	North Carolina.
Ind. Ter.,	Indian Territory.	Neb.,	Nebraska.
I. Ter.,	Idaho Territory.	Nev.,	Nevada.
Ia.,	Iowa.	N. H.,	New Hampshire.
N. M.,	New Mexico.	N. J.,	New Jersey.
N. Y.,	New York.	Tex.,	Texas.
N. D.,	North Dakota.	U. Ter.,	Utah Territory.
O.,	Ohio.	Va.,	Virginia.
Or.,	Oregon.	Vt.,	Vermont.
Penn.,	Pennsylvania.	Wis.,	Wisconsin.
R. I.,	Rhode Island.	Wy. Ter.,	Wyoming Territory.
S. C.,	South Carolina.	Wash.	Washington.
S. D.,	South Dakota.	W. Va.,	West Virginia.
Tenn.,	Tennessee.	Ont.,	Ontario, Canada.
Mex.,	Mexico.	P. Q.,	Province of Quebec.
Jan.,	January.	Jul.,	July.
Feb.,	February.	Aug.,	August.
Mar.,	March.	Sept.,	September.
Apr.,	April.	Oct.,	October.
May,	May.	Nov.,	November.
Jun.,	June.	Dec.,	December.
Agt.,	Agent.	Disct.,	Discount.
Amt.,	Amount.	Hon.,	Honorable.

LETTER-WRITING.

The essential parts of a letter are the *Heading*, the *Address*, the *Salutation*, the *Body* and the *Subscription*.

The **Heading** consists of the name of the place at which the letter is written and the date. If ruled paper is used, the heading is written on the first line of it; if unruled, it is written one and a half or two inches from the top of the page, beginning a little to the left of the middle of the page.

MODELS OF HEADINGS.

Model 1.

Springfield, Ohio, Sept. 14, 1857.

Model 2.

*No. 914 Vandeventer Place,
St. Louis, May 16, 1890.*

Model 3.

*Beaver, Warren Co., Pa.
Wednesday, July 25, 1891.*

The **Address** consists of the name of the person written to and the name of the place in which he lives. It should be written a

line or two below the heading, near the left side of the page, and a little to the right of the body of the letter.

MODELS OF ADDRESS.

Model 1.

*Mr. John B. Lucas,
Rochester, N. Y.
Dear Sir:*

Model 2.

*Dr. John W. Clemens,
Hoboken, N. J.
Sir:*

Model 3.

*Mrs. Charles Green,
Cincinnati, Ohio.
Dear Madam,—*

Model 4.

*Miss C. Evans,
Buffalo, N. Y.
Madam,—*

Model 5.

*To the Board of Education,
703 Chestnut St., St. Louis.
Gentlemen,—*

Other forms of address will be required according to circumstances, varying with the persons addressed and the terms of intimacy that exist. The following are some of those now in general use:

Dr. Hugo Auler; Hugh M. Wright, M. D.; Joseph Goodwin, D. D. LL. D.; Mr. Walter F. McEntire; W. P. Macklin, Esq.; B. C. Baldwin, LL. D.; Rev. H. J. Davis, or Rev. Mr. Davis.

The form of *Salutation* used depends upon the intimacy of the writer with the person addressed. *Sir* and *Madam* indicate great formality. *Dear Sir* and *Dear Madam* are the forms in general use. *My dear Mr. Holden* and *My dear Mrs. Hamilton* are forms implying greater intimacy.

The following are in general use: *Dear Mr. Dodd, My dear Mr. Dodd; Dear Friend, My dear Friend; Sir, Dear Sir, My dear Sir; Sirs, Gentlemen; Madam, Dear Madam, My dear Madam, Ladies.*

The title *Hon.* is applied to persons holding high governmental positions; *His Excellency* is applied to the President of the United States and to State Governors.

The **Body** of the letter follows the salutation. It should be commenced on the next line below and a little to the right of it. Business letters should be brief, and to the point. Friendly correspondence requires an easy, familiar style, for the acquisition of which the study of good models will be very useful.

The first line of the body of a letter is, probably, the most important, and for that reason a few models are here presented:

1. *I am in receipt of yours, etc.*
2. *Yours of the 16th inst. is just received, etc.*
3. *Your favor of the 3d inst. is received, etc.*
4. *Your esteemed favor of the 10th inst. is at hand, etc.*
5. *Yours of the 18th has remained unanswered until now, etc.*

SUPERSCRPTION.

Model 1.

*Hon. R. H. Handlan, M. C.,
House of Representatives,
Washington, D. C.*

Model 2.

*His Excellency W. R. Francis,
Executive Chamber,
Jefferson City, Mo.*

The **Superscription** consists of the name and address as written on the envelope. This should be written neatly and plainly. When writing to a person living at or near a small town or village, the name of the county should be given. When writing to a person in the city, the street and residence number should be given.

The **Subscription**, like the salutation, depends, for its form, upon the intimacy of the parties corresponding. The following are a few of the various forms used:

Faithfully yours; Respectfully yours; Truly yours; Yours truly; Very truly yours; Your obedient servant; Your obedient humble servant; As ever, your friend; Ever affectionately yours; Yours affectionately; Yours cordially, etc.

Official letters have a more stately formal close than any other. The following are approved forms — the first being in the diplomatic style.

*I have the honor to be, Sir,
With the highest consideration,
Your obedient servant,
Alfred M. Wright.*

*I have the honor to remain,
With much respect,
Your obedient servant,
Comde J. Pallen.*

*I have the honor to be (or remain),
Very respectfully,
Your most obedient servant,
Henry F. Miller.*

*I am, Sir,
Your obedient servant,
Walter H. Long.*

A FEW REMARKS.

Talleyrand said: "Never destroy a letter and never write one." Modify this so much as relates to compromising yourself. It is a good plan, when you find yourself impelled to write an angry letter, to destroy the first one you write and the second one. The third or fourth will probably be less unpleasant in its effects.

The whole art and secret of letter-writing is to write precisely as you speak; know exactly what you have to say and say it. Accommodate your language to the capacity of your correspondent. Read your letters before sending. Make this an imperative rule, so that no careless work will leave your hands. Write nothing which you would hesitate to say if speaking to your correspondent.

Letters of little importance should be answered without delay. In matters of moment, of course a certain amount of deliberation should be used.

Letters should be as short and terse as our business conversations. The greatest possible number of ideas should be put into

the fewest number of words. Use the shortest words that will express your meaning.

The **paper** and **envelopes** used is a matter of taste, and sometimes, in a degree, show the status of the writer. When possible, use fine paper, always a whole sheet, and envelopes of a fitting size to avoid many folds in the paper.

Never write a private letter on foolscap paper; to do so is awkward, clumsy, and generally inexcusable.

Never send a half-sheet letter, except on business; and never send less than a half-sheet under any circumstances. For a private letter, even if you write only two or three lines, use a whole sheet.

No color is more tasteful than white, for any kind of letter, and a gentleman should use no other.

Unruled paper is to be preferred, but without a violation of good taste, ruled paper may be used. Any one by diligent practice may learn to write straight without a guiding line, and the ability to do so is a valuable acquirement.

A letter requesting an answer for the exclusive benefit of the writer, should be accompanied by a stamp for return postage; or, still better, an envelope addressed and stamped.

A LETTER.

To be written:

Write a letter dated to-day, at No. 37 Olive St., Cleveland, addressed to Mr. G. M. Bowers, Principal, Metropolitan Business College, in answer to the following questions: 1. When and where were you born? 2. How was your early life spent, and what were your school advantages? 3. What school did you last attend? 4. What studies did you there pursue? 5. Did you graduate? 6. When did you leave that school? 7. Have you had any experience in business of any kind, and if so what? 8. What is your purpose in attending this College? 9. How long do you expect to attend? 10. How many hours each day can you devote to study at home?

Chicago, Ill., June 14, 1870.

A. B. Brown, Esq.,

Buena Vista, Mex.

Dear Sir:

Your car load of fruit consigned to us on the 18th ult. was duly received. We had no trouble in disposing of the apples and pears, but the quinces were almost a "dead letter" on the market. We, however, herewith attach account current for the amount of the whole car load.

125 barrels Apples, No. 1, at \$1.50.....	\$187.50
25 " " No. 2, at \$.75	18.75
5 " Quinces, at \$3.50.....	17.50
5 " Fall Pears, at \$1.60.....	8.00
	\$231.75
Freight on car.....	\$62.00
Cartage.....	12.50
Commission on sales.....	11.58
Insurance.....	1.17
Storage.....	17.00
	\$104.25
Amount due consignor.	\$127.50

I remain,

Yours very truly,
Wallace Campbell.

Each of these letters should be made a study — repeatedly read and copied. The relative positions of the Heading, Address, Salutation and Subscription to the body of the letter and to each other, as well as the punctuation of different parts, should be carefully observed.

Suggestion. — The great educational and literary value of letter-writing should give it a more prominent place in a model course of study than it generally occupies. Teachers should to a great extent, substitute this exercise for the writing of ordinary “compositions.” They will thus secure greater ease and freedom of expression than by the old method, and will at the same time give their pupils a practical acquaintance with the forms and peculiarities of letters.

Punctuation. — *A comma should be placed after every item of the heading, address and subscription, except the last, where a period is used.*

QUOTING PRICES.

Indianapolis, Ind., June 12, 1890.

*J. P. Williams, Esq.,
Bushnell, Ill.*

Dear Sir:

Your favor of the 7th inst. containing remittance at hand, for which we are duly grateful.

We have no left-hand Stitching Horse in stock, but we can have one made at the factory if you desire.

We quote you prices on buckles, etc., as follows:

X. C. "Champion" Trace (C plate) at.....	\$2.00 per dozen.
" " " (Japanned) at.....	1.75 " "
$\frac{25}{16}$ inch "Kangaroo" at.....	.75 per gross.
$\frac{25}{16}$ " " "	.85 " "
$\frac{7}{8}$ " " "	.95 " "
$\frac{3}{4}$ Barrel Roller at.....	1.25 per dozen.
1 " " "	.90 " "
No. 44 Ring Bolts (stiff or joint).....	.45 " "
No. 33 " " " "	.55 " "
No. 171 Half Snaffle.	.90 " "
No. 23 " " " "	1.10 " "

Hoping to receive your order soon, we remain,

Yours very truly,

WM. C. COIT.

Punctuation.—The salutation in a letter should be followed by a comma and dash. The colon (:) as well as the colon and dash (:—) is sometimes used.

Chicago, Ill., May 29. 1890.

Messrs. J. P. Price & Co.

123 S. National Street,

Worcester, Mass.

Gentlemen:

We have the following cars on track, and can offer them to you at annexed prices delivered. We consider the stock in all of these cars fully up to grade, and most of it above grade.

10 cars, No. 1, D & E, 400 12 ft., 400 14, 700 16, 100 18, 100 20.....	\$20.00
5 “ No. 1, D & E, 300 14, 300 16, 100 18, 100 20.....	18.00
10 “ No. 2, R. F., 150 12, 150 14, 150 16.....	19.00
10 “ “ Bds. Sis., 1000 10 ft, 5000 12, 5000 14.....	18.50
5 “ “ Fencing Sis., $\frac{1}{2}$ 12, $\frac{1}{2}$ 14, $\frac{1}{2}$ 16.....	19.00
6 “ No. 1, Drop Sliding, 3000 12 ft., 8000 16.....	22.00
10 “ “ Lath.....	4.00
10 “ XXX Shingles.....	3.70

If you can use any of the above cars, please let us know at once so that we may forward same immediately.

Hoping you will favor us with a good order, we remain,

Yours truly,

O. M. POWERS & Co.

Direction.—Write a letter similar to the foregoing to Mr. Walter A. Wright, Little Rock, Ark. Note the punctuation of the heading, the address, the salutation and the subscription.

A COMPLAINT.

Mr. R. L. Hood,
Memphis, Tenn.

Dear Sir,—

I am compelled for the first time in a long connection with your house, to complain of the quality of the goods forwarded to me per last steamer. They were so carelessly packed that much of the crockery was broken. The glass and china are very inferior to the last sent at the same price. Unless my orders can be filled more efficiently, I shall be compelled to deal with another house.

Very respectfully,

T. R. Winston.

Direction.—Write a letter similar to the foregoing to Geo. H. Brown, Louisville, Ky. Suppose yourself to be a dealer in hardware, glass, paints, oils, cutlery, etc., instead of glass and china ware.

Punctuation.—*Transposed and parenthetical words, phrases and clauses are usually set off by commas; as, Doubtless, this man is guilty.*

LANGUAGE LESSONS.

Many of the commonest errors in language can hardly be referred to rules of syntax. They are violations of good taste, diction and logic. A systematic discussion and correction of the sentences in this series of lessons will serve to cultivate the taste and the powers of expression, and to give the student a knowledge of correct language even though his knowledge of grammar may be quite limited.

Explanation.—A word in *italics* will occasionally point out an error. A figure at the end of a line will sometimes indicate the rule violated. These are only incidental, however. The student is expected to discover the error and correct it even when he finds it necessary to reconstruct the entire sentence.

ERRORS IN LANGUAGE.

Correct the following sentences, and give the reason for the correction:

1. We cannot do *no* more.
2. I went *direct* to the place. 18.
3. The officer only discharged his duty.
4. He read only the book; he did not tear it.
5. Nothing can justify *over* an untruth.
6. He only read the book, not the notice of it.
7. He was not able to pay the debt but in part.
8. Be not dishonest, nor take advantage of no one.

Incorrect.

1. It is me.
2. Him and her went.
3. Between you and I.
4. Lay down, Towser!
5. He learned me arithmetic.
6. Mary or Jane are wrong.

Correct.

1. It is I.
2. He and she went.
3. Between you and me.
4. Lie down, Towser!
5. He taught me arithmetic.
6. Mary or Jane is wrong.

ERRORS IN LANGUAGE.

Correct the following sentences, and explain why the correction is needed:

1. Do not walk slow. 18.
2. Bring them books to me.
3. The plank is ten foot long.
4. George can walk thirty mile a day.
5. William is an awful bad writer.
6. We do not like those sort of people. 22.
7. Henry is brighter than any of the pupils.
8. Either of these four boys may be trusted.

Incorrect.

1. I didn't do nothing.
2. Hain't he gone?
3. I knowed what he done.
4. I've got to get my lesson.

Correct.

- I didn't do any thing.
Hasn't he gone?
I knew what he did.
I must get my lesson.

Portland, Or., August 15, 1890.

*Mr. S. S. Bennett,
44 Canal St., City.*

Dear Sir:

Your order given for the following goods, has been filled and will be taken to your place of business by the next wagon going out.

Enclosed please find bill for same.

4 lbs. Coffee C. Sugar at 5 cts.....	\$.20
9 " " A " at 8 cts.....	.72
12 " Brown Coffee at 30 cts.....	3.60
10 " Oat Meal at 9 cts.....	.90
10 " Rice at 9 cts	.90
1 box Starch at 25 cts	.25
19 boxes Matches at 10 cts.....	1.90
2 boxes Soda Crackers at 3.00.....	6.00
	\$14.47

Hoping to receive your further orders, I am,

Yours truly,

W. D. ARMSTRONG,

No. 137 Olive street.

ERRORS IN LANGUAGE.

Correct the following sentences, and explain why the correction is needed.

1. The birds fly very swift.
2. Why does he not say nothing?
3. That piece of furniture looks very finely.
4. Willie only came to cause mischief.
5. We have not accomplished but very little.
6. Tell me whether he will do it, or no.
7. The two girls were nearly dressed alike.
8. Neither he nor no one else can do that.

Incorrect.

1. Is this 'ere yourn?
2. That 'ere is hisn.
3. She has went home.
4. Where is it at?
5. Where did they get it at?

Correct.

- Is this yours?
- That is his.
- She has gone home.
- Where is it?
- Where did they get it?

Remark.—Two negatives in the same sentence neutralize each other
He *doesn't* know *nothing*.

IRREGULAR VERBS.

PRESENT FORMS.		PAST FORM.	COMPLETE FORM.
I <i>raise</i> ,	He <i>raises</i> ,	I <i>raised</i> ,	I have <i>raised</i> .
I <i>rise</i> ,	He <i>rises</i> ,	I <i>rose</i> ,	I have <i>risen</i> .
I <i>set</i> ,	He <i>sets</i> ,	I <i>set</i> ,	I have <i>set</i> .
I <i>sit</i> ,	He <i>sits</i> ,	I <i>sat</i> ,	I have <i>sat</i> .
I <i>lay</i> ,	He <i>lays</i> ,	I <i>laid</i> ,	I have <i>laid</i> .
I <i>lie</i> ,	He <i>lies</i> ,	I <i>lay</i> ,	I have <i>lain</i> .

Raise is a transitive verb which requires an object to complete its meaning. **Raise** means *lift* or *cause to grow*; **raises**, *lifts*, *causes to grow*; **raised**, *lifted*, *caused to grow*.

Shall I *raise* my hat? My brother *raised* a crop of corn. He *raises* ducks and turkeys. You should have *raised* the window

Direction. — Write ten sentences using a form of the verb **raise** in each. I *raise*; he *raises*; I *raised*; I *have raised*. (Page 94.)

Rise is an intransitive verb, it requires no object. **Rise** means *get up* or *ascend*; **rises**, *gets up* or *ascends*; **rose**, *got up* or *ascended*; **have risen**, *have gotten up* or *have ascended*.

The birds *rise* in the air. The sun *has risen* above the clouds. We *rise* early in the morning. He *rises* early. Henry *rose* early yesterday.

Direction. — Write ten sentences using some form of the verb **rise** in each. I *rise*; he *rises*; I *rose*; I *have risen*.

ERRORS IN LANGUAGE.

Correct the following sentences, and explain why the correction is needed.

1. I *seen* him do it myself.
2. Henry *begun* well, but ended badly.
3. The learning *any* thing well requires application.
4. My brother could not have *wrote* that letter.
5. Anna wastes her time in reading of novels.
6. We saw that carriage while crossing the street.
7. Henry and George could not have *went* to school.
8. Relieving the distressed should be a great pleasure.

Remark.—In connection with the work in this section it will be found advantageous to review the irregular verbs on page 94.

<i>Incorrect.</i>	<i>Correct.</i>
1. 'Taint right.	It isn't right.
2. Apples is nice.	Apples are nice.
3. He don't like them.	He does not like them.
4. Where are you going to?	Where are you going?
5. This is different to that.	This is different from that.

Springfield, Mass., June 10, 1889.

*Messrs. Anderson & White,
St. Louis, Mo.*

Gentlemen:

Yours of recent date ordering the following goods is at hand. We ship same to-day by Adams's Express.

20 boxes Apples, at \$.50.....	\$10.00
5 barrels Old Apples, at \$6.00.....	30.00
60 bunches Yellow Bananas, at \$1.50.....	90.00
20 bunches Culls (including over-ripe fruit), at \$.75.....	15.00
5 bunches Red Bananas, Firsts, at \$2.50	12.50
5 " " " Cull-, at \$1.00.....	5.00
5 " " " Seconds, at \$1.50.....	7.50
	\$170.00

*Yours very truly,
W. D. Brown.*

Direction.— Write ten sentences using some form of the verb **rise** in each. I *rise*; he *rises*; I *rose*; I *have risen*.

Set is a transitive verb, which requires an object to complete its meaning. **Set** means *place* or *put*; **Sets**, *places* or *puts*.

I *set* the ink bottle on your desk; that is, I placed the ink bottle on your desk. He *has set* the lamp on your table. Hilda *set* the child on the bench where it now *sits*. George *set* the box on the grass where it now *sits*. The boy *set* the hen. The hen *sits*.

Direction.— Write six sentences using a form of the verb **set** in each. I *set*; he *sets*; I *set*; I *have set*.

Sit is an intransitive verb. The word **sit** means *rest*; **sits** means *rests*; **sat** means *rested*.

William *sits* in a chair. He *sat* in a chair yesterday. The boy has rested in a chair since noon. The cat *sits* on the bench. Your dog *sat* on the bench last night. We *have sat* here long enough. The pitcher *sits* where you *set* it yesterday.

Direction.— Write ten sentences using a form of the word **sit** in each. I *sit*; he *sits*; I *sat*; I *have sat*; I *had sat*. (Page 95.)

Lay is a transitive verb. The word **lay** means *place* or *put*; **laid** means *placed* or *put*; **have laid** means *have placed* or *have put*.

I *lay* my book on the desk. I *laid* my hand on the window. I *have laid* my books on your desk several times. You *had laid* your things on the table before we arrived.

Direction.— Write eight sentences using, if possible, a different form of the verb **lay** in each. I *lay*; he *lays*; I *laid*; I *have laid*; I *had laid*; he *had laid*.

Lie is an intransitive verb. The word **lie** means *rest* or *recline*; **lies** means *rests* or *reclines*; **lay** means *rested* or *reclined*.

The men *lie* on the grass. He *lies* on the lounge now. He *lay* on the lounge all last night. He *has lain* on the lounge day after day for weeks. He *had lain* on the floor before I arrived. The blocks *lie* on the box. The block *lies* on the box.

Direction.— Write eight sentences using, if possible, a different form of the verb **lie** in each. I *lie*; he *lies*; I *lay*; I *have lain*; he *has lain*; they *have lain*.

PROSE COMPOSITION.

Prose Composition is the term applied to all classes of composition which are not written in verse.

Among the varieties of prose composition are Letters, Editorials, Essays, Reviews, Treatises, History, Fiction.

A **Letter** is a communication in writing addressed by the writer to some other person.

An **Editorial** is the published opinion of the editor of a newspaper on the current topics of the day.

Remark. — Whatever knowledge, wit or wisdom is displayed by the paper, is supposed to exist in that unseen oracle who sits veiled behind the mysterious "We."

An **Essay** is a formal discourse on some subject which it treats at length in a systematic manner.

Remark. — An essay, in form, is impersonal; but, when the writer finds it necessary to introduce himself, he does it in the singular, "I," not in the editorial "We."

A **Review** is a lengthy editorial. It is generally an article of many pages, giving the opinions of a monthly or quarterly magazine, instead of a brief article in a daily or weekly paper.

Reviews, like editorials, embrace almost every variety of subject. They are commonly, though not always, based on some book.

A **Treatise** is a written discourse or composition on some subject, setting forth its principles in a systematic and orderly manner.

Treatises differ from essays mainly in being more formal and scientific. They are more frequently divided than essays are, into regular chapters, sections, and sub-sections.

History is a record of important events for the instruction of mankind. The fundamental qualities in compositions of this class are accuracy, impartiality, and fidelity.

That record of events, momentous and important, which enables us to apply the transactions of former ages for our own instruction, and that alone, is entitled to the name, history.

Memoirs are a species of historical composition, though not strictly constituting history.

Remark. — The writer of memoirs does not pretend to give a complete account of transactions, but only to relate such portions as those with which he himself was in some way connected.

Biography is the history of one individual; it is, therefore, a species of historical composition.

Biography differs from history proper, not only in being thus limited in range, but also in being less stately and formal. In this respect biography corresponds with memoirs, descending to the particulars of private life.

A Fiction is a composition made up of incidents which are the product of the imagination and are invented for the purpose.

The names most commonly given to works of fiction are Novels and Romances. These terms are for the most part used indiscriminately, though romances more strictly mean a class of fiction in which the manners, incidents, and sentiments are of a rather extravagant character.

Historical Novels are those in which the events of history are related and historical persons are represented as speaking and acting.

Remark. — The historical novel may be made very interesting, but it is very unsafe as a guide in history. The facts are shaped to suit the story, instead of the story to suit the facts.

STYLE.

Certain peculiarities of individual minds appear in their respective styles of composition and give rise to what is known as varieties in style.

The properties which every good style should possess are Purity, Propriety, Precision, Clearness, Strength, Harmony, and Unity.

Purity consists in the use of such words, idioms and constructions as properly belong to our language.

Purity may be violated by the use of *obsolete* words, *newly-coined* words, *foreign* words and *provincial* words. Violations of the rules of syntax are also violations of purity.

Propriety consists in avoiding vulgarisms, in choosing correctly between words formed from the same radical, and in employing words only in such acceptations as are authorized by good usage.

Vulgarisms are out of place in every variety of composition. Colloquialisms are proper enough in conversation but not sufficiently dignified for written composition.

Precision consists in the use of such words as convey precisely the meaning intended and nothing more.

Precision is generally violated by a want of discrimination in the use of synonymous terms: Cæsar displayed *courage*, not *fortitude* on the battlefield.

Clearness or **Perspicuity** consists in such a use and arrangement of words, phrases and clauses as at once distinctly indicate the meaning of the writer.

Other things being equal, the greater the Purity, Propriety and Precision of a sentence the clearer it will be. Equivocation, Ambiguity and Obscurity are faults opposed to Clearness.

Strength consists in such a use and arrangement of words as make a deep impression on the mind of the reader or hearer.

The strength of a sentence may be enhanced by rejecting all superfluous words, by never closing with a preposition or any small word, and by arranging its members so that the shorter or weaker stand before the longer or more important.

Harmony is a rhetorical term used to denote that smooth and easy flow of language which pleases the ear.

Harmony consists in the use of euphonious, or pleasant-sounding words, the euphonious arrangement of words, and the adaptation of the sound to the sense which it is used to express.

Tautology consists of the repetition of a sound by employing the same word more than once in a sentence, or by using in contiguous words, similar combinations of letters, either of which serves to destroy harmony.

Unity consists in the restriction of a sentence to one leading proposition, modified only by such accessories as are materially and closely connected with it.

A sentence may consist of parts but these must be so bound together as to convey to the mind the impression of *one fact*, and but one. Avoid long parentheses and do not crowd into a sentence things which have no logical connection.

INVENTION.

Invention is the process of developing thought in connection with any particular theme. It is this that furnishes the material of composition, and upon this, in a great measure, its value depends.

At first, and in fact always, outline the subject before undertaking to write the composition.

The preparation of this outline is the very essence of invention. It sets the pupil at once to thinking—to gathering thoughts instead of putting together mere words. The outline, therefore, should be a leading portion of the exercise, and should in each case be submitted to the teacher for inspection and comment, before the composition is written.

Suppose that *Anger* is selected as the theme for a composition. Such questions as the following at once suggest themselves to the student and are written down:

1. What is Anger?
2. What are its visible effects?
3. How does a person feel when his fit of passion has subsided?
4. What are its usual effects on

individuals? 5. To what may the angry man be compared? 6. Morally speaking, what is the character of this passion?

These are only a few of the questions that may be asked. In them we find the germ of the composition, and from them we construct an outline like the following:

1. Definition of anger.
2. Feelings produced by anger.
3. Effects on those about us.
4. Moral character of anger.
5. Methods of controlling the passion.

AMPLIFICATION.

The analytical outline of the theme completed, the next step is amplification. This consists in enlarging on the thoughts presented in the outline. Each topic may be repeatedly enlarged upon, and the whole composition rewritten several times, and at each writing new and appropriate additional matter may be introduced until one complete and consistent whole has been produced. The first topic of the subject, *Anger*, may be amplified thus:

1. Anger is a passion.
2. Anger is a strong passion or emotion.
3. Anger is a strong passion or emotion of the mind excited by a real or supposed injury.
4. Anger is a keen displeasure, a strong passion or emotion of the mind excited by a real or supposed injury and usually accompanied with a desire to punish.

THEMES FOR COMPOSITION.

- | | |
|---------------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| 1. Friendship. | 2. Composition. |
| 3. Good English. | 4. Importance of Correctness. |
| 5. Schools, Public and Private. | 6. Comfort for the Dunces. |
| 7. Misuse of Words. | 8. My favorite Study. |
| 9. The Ideal School. | 10. School a Manufactory. |
| 11. Graduation Day. | 12. Errors in the use of English. |
| 13. Poetry of School Life. | 14. The School-master Abroad. |
| 15. Accomplishments.. | 16. The Delsarte System. |

PRONUNCIATION.

Orthoëpists and great linguists do not all agree in the pronunciation of certain vocal elements in our language. The shades of difference, though slight, are, in some instances, worthy of notice.

A as in blast, mast, far, staff, ask.

Many of our most eminent scholars give to the vowel in words of this class the sound of *a* as in *and*. Another large class of speakers give in such words the sound of *a* as in *arm*. Those who prefer the first as the proper quality of the element should avoid the drawl or thin, prolonged sound which is sometimes given to it. Some eminent orthoëpists regard this vowel as of an intermediate quality between *a* as in *and* and *a* as in *arm*.

A as in fare, or e as in there.

The most eminent scholars on both sides of the Atlantic give to the vowel *a* or *e* in words of this class the sound of long *a* deprived of its vanishing element *e* as heard in *pay* and *say*. This practice is better observed by Englishmen than by Americans. In the United States a somewhat lengthened form of *a* as in *and*, although not sanctioned by the Dictionaries, is more commonly given to words of this class. The sound occurs only before *r*, and should be *closely blended* with the sound of *u* as in *urn*, which is heard before *r* in the pronunciation of such words.

The compound long vowel sound, generally indicated by *u*, as in *use*, begins with the consonant *y* and ends with *oo*.

This is the sound heard in the words *unit*, *cube*, *mute*, *educate*, etc. But when the compound vowel *u*, or its equivalent, in a monosyllable or an accented syllable, follows *t*, *d*, *l*, *n*, *s*, *th* or *j*, the initial element is slighted so as to become a very brief and indistinct sound of *i* as in *ill*; as in *tune*, *duke*, *lunar*, *nude*, *suit*, *enthusiast*, *jewel*.

When a short sound of *o* occurs before *ss*, *st*, *th*, or the sound of *f*, as in *cross*, *cost*, *broth*, *soft*, *cough*, and in some cases before *ng*, as in *long*, *strong*, it is the practice of the best speakers to give to the *o* a medium sound between *o* as in *on* and *a* as in *fall*.

Many speakers in England give to *e*, *ea*, *i* and *y*, in a few words (as *herd*, *earth*, *girl*, *myrtle*) whose vowel element is commonly pronounced as *u* in *urn*, a sound very nearly like that of *e* as in *end*; but this distinction is very generally disregarded in this country.

EXERCISES IN PRONUNCIATION.

1. Do not pronounce *ow* like *ur* or *uh*; as *hol'lur* for *hol'low*; *shad'duh* for *sha'dow*.

Pronounce, Pil'low, yel'low, to-mor'row, bor'row, wid'ow, fel'low, nar'row, swal'lowing, mel'lowing.

2. Do not pronounce *ess* like *iss*; as *hardniss* for *hardness*.

Pronounce, Harm'less, good'ness, care'less, bold'ness, bad'ness, em'press, host'ess, full'ness, clear'ness, seam'stress.

3. Do not pronounce *el* like *il*, *et* like *it*, or *est* like *ist*; as *fu'il* for *fu'el*, *bask'it* for *bask'et*.

Pronounce, Bush'el, cru'el, du'el, strong'est, young'est, yet, get, mark'et, hatch'et, rack'et, rock'et, riv'ulet, hon'est, bold'est, larg'est, small'est.

4. Do not pronounce *ent* like *unt*, or *ence* like *unce*; as *sil'unt* for *sil'ent*, *sent'unce* for *sent'ence*.

Pronounce, Expe'rience, superintend'ence, pa'tience, six'pence, pru'dent, de'cent, mo'ment, gar'ment, mon'ument, gov'ernment, superintend'ent, par'liament.

5. Do not use the sound of short *u* before a final *m*; as *he'lum* for *helm*, *chas'um* for *chasm*.

Pronounce, Whelm, worm, spasm, overwhelm, film, rhythm, phan'tasm, bap'tism, pa'triotism, elm.

6. Do not sound *sh* before *r* like *s*; as *sруб* for *shrub*, *srink* for *shrink*.

Pronounce, Shroud, shriv'el, shred, shrunken, shriek, shrine.

7. Do not omit the sound of *r* after a vowel as in *arm*.

Pronounce, Pa'per, or'der, horse, warm, alarm'ing, dark, start, hark, are, remark, chart, door.

8. Do not omit the sound of *d* when preceded by *n*; as *ban* for *band*.

Pronounce, Winds, stand, friends, defends', depends', demands', hand'ful, grand'father.

9. Do not omit the sound of *d* in the terminal letters *lds*; as *wilz* for *wilds*, *felz* for *fields*.

Pronounce, *Folds*, *holds*, *scolds*, *builds*, *scalds*, *unfolds'*, *child's*.

10. Do not omit the sound of *t* when preceded by *c hard* in the same syllable; as *aks* for *acts*, *exak'ly* for *exact'ly*.

Pronounce, *Tracts*, *facts*, *direct'ly*, *per'fectly*, *com'pacts*, *inspects'*, *respects'*, *inducts'*, *instructs'*, *correct'ly*, *ab'stractly*.

11. Do not suppress the vowel sounds in unaccented syllables: as *ev'ry* for *ev'ery*, *his'try* for *his'tory*.

Pronounce, *Sev'eral*, *part'iciple*, *belief*, *crock'ery*, *fam'ily*, *fa'-vorite*, *des'perate*, *des'olate*, *nom'inative*, *mis'ery*, *li'brary*, *sal'ary*, *com'pany*, *com'fortable*, *perfum'ery*, *mem'ory*, *vic'tory*, *slip'pery*.

12. Do not suppress the sound of *e* or of *i* before *l* or *n* in those words in which it should be articulated.

Pronounce, *Hov'el*, *nov'el*, *par'cel*, *bar'rel*, *trav'el*, *quar'rel*, *sor'rel*, *pen'cil*, *chick'en*, *sat'in*, *mit'ten*, *lin'en*.

13. Do not sound *e* or *i* before *n* or *l* in the following words in which it is silent.

Pronounce, *Heav'en*, *ha'ven*, *ba'sin*, *sev'en*, *hazel*, *gold'en*, *e'vil*, *o'pen*, *wid'en*, *fro'zen*, *wood'en*, *short'en*, *wak'en*.

14. Give to the vowel *a* in the unaccented terminal syllables *al*, *ant*, *ance*, its short sound, but do not make it prominent.

Pronounce, *Na'tional*, *par'tial*, *fi'nal*, *eter'nal*, *ig'norant*, *ty'-rant*, *in'stant*, *fla'grant*, *vig'ilance*, *ig'norance*, *in'stance*, *fra'grance*.

15. Do not give to long *o*, when unaccented and slightly abridged, the sound of short *u*.

Pronounce, *Opin'ion*, *obed'ience*, *provide'*, *promote'*, *provoke'*, *pota'to*, *tobac'co*, *posi'tion*, *soci'ety*, *el'oquence*, *disposi'tion*, *mel'-ody*, *composi'tion*.

16. Do not lay too much stress on an unaccented syllable or a syllable having a secondary accent.

Pronounce, *Gigan'tic*, *precise'ly*, *salva'tion*, *loca'tion*, *vaca'-tion*, *ter'ritory*, *sec'ondary*, *mat'rimony*, *prom'issory*, *vac'cinated*.

17. Do not substitute the sound of *oo* for that of long *u* in the following words.

Pronounce, Mute, tune, duke, duty, tube, mu'sic, nude, du'bious, lute, in'stitute, illude'.

18. Do not give the sound of long *u* after *r*, *ch* or *sh* when the sound of *oo* long or short should be heard.

Pronounce, Ruby, rule, fruit, truth, chew, grew, sure, sugar, truly, bru'tal, rude, ru'bicund, through.

19. The vowel *a*, when unaccented, at the end of a word has the sound of *a* in *far*, *charm* and *star* somewhat shortened.

Pronounce, Pi'ca, da'ta, dra'ma, com'ma, so'fa, al'gebra, Chi'na, Amer'ica, dilem'ma, mi'ca, alpac'a, a'rea, neb'ula.

COMPOSITION.

Write a composition using the following outline as a guide. Each topic may form one paragraph in the composition:

Subject, Going to School.

1. The object of going to school.
2. Behavior at school.
3. Behavior on the road to and from school.
4. Difference between a school and a religious meeting.
5. The usual exercises of a school.

ERRORS IN LANGUAGE.

Correct the following sentences, and explain why the correction is made.

1. You *was* kindly treated. 13.
2. Appearances is often deceptive. 13.
3. He *don't* know what it is. 13.
4. He dare not do as he threatened. 13.
5. What *does* all my exertions avail?
6. The correctness of these rules *are* doubtful.
7. Thou *sees* the difficulty in which I am placed.
There *was* many reasons for taking that course.

Remark. — The apostrophe, besides being used in the possessive form is used to denote the omission of one or more letters.

The following are often abbreviated by the use of the apostrophe:

He's	= he is.	O'	= of.
It's	= it is.	He'll	= he will
I'm	= I am.	O'er	= over.
You're	= you are.	Ne'er	= never.
We're	= we are.	I've	= I have.
They're	= they are.	I'll	= I will.

Write a composition using the following outline as a guide. Let each topic form one paragraph in the composition.

Subject, Cloth.

1. General appearance of cloth.
2. Some of the forms in which it comes.
3. Materials of which it is made.
4. Its numerous uses.

Subjects Suggested. — *Leather, Paper, Felt, Crackers.*

ERRORS IN LANGUAGE.

Correct the following sentences, and explain why the correction is needed.

1. *Whom* do they say that I am? 2.
2. It was *me* that wrote the letter. 2.
3. We did not know that it was *him*. 2.
4. It is not *me* that he is angry with. 2.
5. Industry and frugality *leads* to wealth. 13.
6. James, and also his brother, *have* gone home.
7. If I had been *him*, I should have done the same.
8. To be good and to shun evil always *brings* happiness,

Incorrect.

Correct.

- | | |
|---------------------------------|-------------------------------|
| 1. They believe it to be I. | They believe it to be me. |
| 2. We understood it to be she. | We understood it to be her. |
| 3. Let him be whom he may. | Let him be who he may. |
| 4. It could not have been her. | It could not have been she. |
| 5. Who do they think him to be? | Whom do they think him to be? |

PRONUNCIATION.

Direction.—Pronounce the following words giving the proper ac'cent to each syllable:

Nouns.	Verbs.	Nouns.	Verbs.
con'flict	conflict'	pre'fix	prefix'
ac'cent	accent'	re'tail	retail'
con'trast	contrast'	per'fume	perfume'
con'duct	conduct'	sur'vey	survey'
ob'ject	object'	con'cert	concert'
es'cort	escort'	con'vert	convert'
prod'uce	produce'	con'vict	convict'
con'tract	contract'	cem'ent	cement'

Direction.—Pronounce each of the following words in rapid succession, putting the sound of **a** as heard in the words, **mast**, **blast** and **far** into each:

Pronounce, France, slant, graft, dance, blast, staff, lance, clasp, ask, plaster, grant, glance, master, cast, class, prance, pass, demand, mass, pastor, gasp, enchant, chance, grass, glass, advance, pasture, mast.

Write a short composition answering the following questions.

Subject, Pears.

1. Are pears a cultivated or a wild fruit?
2. Where do they grow?
3. Is there more than one kind of pears?
4. What are some of the best kinds of pears?
5. For what are pears used?
6. What drink is made from pears?
7. How are dried pears prepared?

Subjects Suggested.—*Apples, Cherries, Grapes, Peaches.*

Punctuation.—*Transposed and parenthetical words, phrases and clauses are usually set off by commas; as, Doubtless, this man is guilty.*

ERRORS IN LANGUAGE.

Correct the following sentences, and explain why the correction is needed.

1. Neither he or I *are* mistaken. 13.
2. Either John or his brother *have* done this. 13.
3. Either I or she *are* entitled to the prize. 13.
4. Either ability or inclination *were* wanting.
5. No pains nor cost *were* spared in her education.
6. Ignorance or negligence *have* caused this mistake.
7. Neither poverty nor riches was the cause of his discontent.
8. Our happiness or our misery mainly *depend* upon ourselves.

Incorrect.

1. Who did she marry?
2. What for did she go?
3. 'Taint no use trying.
4. He hadn't ought to had it.
5. Me and John went a fishing.

Correct.

- Whom did she marry?
 Why did she go?
 It is of no use trying.
 He ought not to have had it.
 John and I went a fishing.

DICTATION EXERCISES.

To be analyzed.

1. Your coat *lies* where you *laid* it an hour ago. 2. James *rises* early in the morning and *raises* the window. 3. Arthur *rose* from the grass and *raised* his hat as we approached. 4. The chair *sits* where I *set* it some time ago. 5. It *sat* all day where Martha *had set* it before you came. 6. It *lay* an hour where you *had laid* it.

Suggestion.—A few minutes may be spent in a drill exercise pronouncing the words in the following paragraph. Put the sound of **a** as heard in **calm**, **charm** and **far** into each:

Pronounce, Embalm, varnish, salve, far, path, arm, star, mamma, lathing, jaunt, halves, taunt, charm, launch, guard, charcoal, palm, calves, haunch, calm, hearth, balmy, laugh, psalm, haunt, aunt, farther, gape, jaunty, half.

ERRORS IN LANGUAGE.

Correct the following sentences, and explain why the correction is needed:

1. His influence was such as *are* rarely seen.
2. Each of us had as much as *we* desired. 9.
3. Those *which* are ready may come forward.
4. We have done every thing *what* you ordered.
5. Truth and honesty cannot fail in *its* reward.
6. Every one must judge of *their* own feelings. 9.
7. Let every one of you attend to your own business. 9.

*Incorrect.**Correct.*

- | | |
|-------------------------------------|--------------------------------------|
| 1. I can't hardly tell. | I can hardly tell. |
| 2. Has the boys gone? | Have the boys gone? |
| 3. I can write better than him. | I can write better than he. |
| 4. The boys which are here. | The boys who are here. |
| 5. Each must have their own. | Each must have his own. |
| 6. He don't know nothin' about it. | He does not know any thing about it. |
| 7. Every one should have their own. | Every one should have his own. |

Write a composition using the following outline as a guide:

Subject, **Traveling.**

1. Different modes of traveling.
2. Things to be gained by traveling.
3. Mishaps and dangers to be encountered in traveling.
4. Some of the places and people that I would like to visit.
5. Books of travel which I have read.

Direction. — Select a pupil to pronounce the words in the following paragraph, putting the sound of **u** as heard in the words **assume**, **plural** and **fluid** into each. Several individuals may be called upon to pronounce the words, and finally, the entire class:

Pronounce, Tuesday, student, produce, consume, tuition, presume, Lucy, numeral, bugle, introduce, institute, opportunity, accurate, fuel, ague, duel, numeration, perfume, museum, acute, stupid.

Direction. — Pronounce each of the words in the following paragraph with distinct articulation and more than a little force. Pronounce them rapidly and repeatedly putting the sound of **o** as heard in **hobby, torrid** and **model** into each:

Pronounce, Squash, hovel, horror, lobster, wasp, horrid, lottery, pod, lot, hog, gossip, wad, model, songster, nostril, modern, frock, object, morrow, nod, novel, sock, swan, what, sob.

Select one of the following subjects and write a composition purely imaginary. Write an outline of the subject before commencing to write the composition.

1. "Autobiography of a Doll."
2. "A Boy and a Purse of Gold."
3. "Autobiography of a Pin."
4. "My Trip to the Moon."
5. "A Little Girl and her Lamb."

Write an outline of each of the subjects in the foregoing list.

Remark. — An "Autobiography of a Doll" means the history of its life, supposed to be written by itself.

Correct the following sentences and explain why the correction is made:

1. They plunged in the river.
2. *Who* was it meant for? 7.
3. They all perished for thirst.
4. We have no occasion of his services.
5. I didn't see any thing into this.
6. The kitten followed on after its mother.
7. He rode several miles, driving a herd of oxen on horseback.
8. How much did you send him to town with?

Incorrect.

1. I hain't got no slate.
2. The folks are to home.
3. He went in the house.
4. He told you and I.
5. Have you spoke your piece?

Correct.

- I haven't any slate.
- The folks are at home.
- He went into the house.
- He told you and me.
- Have you spoken your piece?

ERRORS IN LANGUAGE.

Correct the following sentences and explain why the correction is made:

1. The cat jumped *on* the table.
2. This child is *of* four years old.
3. He asked *of the* boys a question.
4. They live at Dayton Street in No. 28.
5. We plunged into, and swam across the river.
6. He divided his property *between* his five children.
7. Which of these three books can I find that passage *in*?
8. Such a man's remarks are not worthy your notice.

Incorrect.

1. Where is it at?
2. Not as I know of.
3. The bell was rang.
4. It rained right smart.
5. Who did you give it to?
6. Where did it come from?

Correct.

- Where is it?
 Not that I am aware of.
 The bell was rung.
 It rained quite hard.
 To whom did you give it?
 From where did it come?

1. *Whom* do you suppose did it? 1.
2. Art not thee and him related? 1.
3. We know *them* are entirely mistaken? 1.
4. She and *me* went to school together. 1.
5. *Them* who do right shall be rewarded. 1.
6. You and *us* have been very fortunate. 1.
7. *I* and *her* are going to take a walk together.
8. You know as well as *me* what was done. 1.

Punctuation. — *Use the colon (:) between the parts of a sentence when these parts are themselves divided by the semicolon, and before a quotation or an enumeration of particulars when formally introduced.*

Direction. — Have the words in the following paragraph pronounced clearly, distinctly and with emphasis, putting the sound of **u** as heard in the words **tube**, **mule**, and **duty** into each:

Pronounce, Susan, dew, few, tune, glue, pupil, nubia, puny, June, tulip, flute, cube, music, pure, new, beauty, dewlap, knew, blue, blew, suit.

COMPOSITION.

Write a composition using the following outline as a guide:

Subject, Memory.

1. The importance of a good memory.
2. How far back we can go in our recollections.
3. Methods of improving the memory.
4. Instances of very great memory of which we have heard.

Remark.—In writing a composition on a subject like the foregoing, it will often be found convenient to begin by taking a definition from the dictionary.

Direction.—Drill the class in the pronunciation of the following words putting the sound of **o** as heard in **frost**, **fog**, and **borrow** into each.

Pronounce, Office, log, clock, gone, cloth, dog, cobweb, frog, fog, frost, sod, cotton, wrong, bottle, on, moss, borrow, hod, soft, not.

OTHER SUBJECTS.

To be outlined:

- | | |
|------------------|--------------------------|
| 1. Perseverance. | 6. Obedience to Parents. |
| 2. Industry. | 7. Giving Way to Anger. |
| 3. Ambition. | 8. Early Rising. |
| 4. Friendship. | 9. Treatment of Animals. |
| 5. Hatred. | 10. Learning to Draw. |

Direction.—Pronounce the words in the following paragraph repeatedly putting the sound of **oo** as heard in **tooth**, **moon** and **choose** into each:

Pronounce, Broom, food, tool, tour, noon, rude, boot, tooth, room, ooze, choose, goose, root, poor, true, whose, bouquet, roof, rule, croup, move, moon, brute soon, hoop, prove, cool, ruin, loose, hoof, rumor, truth.

Direction. — Pronounce the following words rapidly and distinctly putting the short sound of **oo** as heard in the words **took**, **good** and **book** into each:

Pronounce, Hood, wool, bush, understood, cushion, stood, book, cooper, wood, hook, push, wooden, crooked, shook, look, footstep.

ERRORS IN LANGUAGE.

Correct the errors in the following sentences and explain the reason for the correction:

1. It's leven o'clock.
2. Jane, *do* twist that.
3. She *eat* all there was left.
4. Where did you get it *at*?
5. We *was* so glad to be with him.
6. The teacher saw him and *I*.
7. We had *sparrowgrass* for dinner.
8. *Those* kind of people will never be satisfied.
9. These sort of expressions should be avoided.

Incorrect.

Correct.

- | | |
|------------------------|---------------------|
| 1. It is me. | It is I. |
| 2. Was it her? | Was it she? |
| 3. Go to wonst. | Go at once. |
| 4. It was spoke well. | It was spoken well. |
| 5. They knowed better. | They knew better. |

Direction. — Pronounce each of the following words putting into each the sound of **th** as heard in the words **thread**, **breath** and **truth**:

Pronounce, Thumb, thick, wreath, mouth, breaths, youths, death, deaths, fifth, thrive, throng, truths.

Direction. — Pronounce the words in the following paragraph putting the sound of **oo** as heard in the words, **boot**, **roost** and **whom** into each:

Pronounce, Bosom, croup, rule, moon, moose, route, ruin, whoop, groom, canoe, ruby, boom, balloon, roost, coop, raccoon, recruit, school, loop, cocoon.

Direction.—Pronounce the following words putting the sound of **i** as heard in the words, **imitate**, **pin** and **diminish**, into each:

Pronounce, Divulge, diploma, digest, direction, piazza, pianist, piano, digestion, divisor, dividend, finance, dilute, direct.

ERRORS IN LANGUAGE.

Correct the errors in the following sentences and explain the reasons for the correction:

1. We *was* so surprised.
2. I'm most finished, wait!
3. Why don't you do *like* I do?
4. He *don't* never know how to act.
5. Which of these two books is the *best*?
6. Your brother has *less* mistakes than you.
7. I was no sooner there *but* I wanted to be back,
8. Solomon was wiser than any of the ancient kings.
9. He was willing to take a more *humble* part.
10. George sold three *span* of horses and seven *head* of cattle.

Write an outline for a composition on each of the following subjects:

- | | |
|------------------------|---------------------------------|
| 1. How to Teach. | 7. What is Education. |
| 2. How to Study. | 8. The best Education. |
| 3. Examinations. | 9. The Ideal School-house. |
| 4. School-Days. | 10. The Uses of Fiction. |
| 5. Value of Attention. | 11. How to learn to think. |
| 6. School-Manners. | 12. The Struggles of a Monitor. |

Direction.—Pronounce the words in the following paragraph giving **x** the sound of **ks** as heard in the words, **tax**, **excuse** and **excel**:

Pronounce, Wax, expel, express, exhibition, expect, except, excite, expression, exclamation.

Direction.—Pronounce the words in the following paragraph giving **x** the sound **gz** as heard in the words, **exact**, **exist** and **example**:

Pronounce, Examine, exalt, exert, exaggerate, exertion, exactly, exhale, exhibit, examination, ~~example~~.

Direction.—Pronounce the following words repeatedly putting into each the sound of **s** as heard in the words, **disaster**, **amuse** and **disdain**:

Pronounce, Dissolve, dishonesty, dishonorable, disastrous, disdain, disease, disarm, disaster, dismal, disown, dishonest, dishonor.

ERRORS IN LANGUAGE.

Correct the violations of purity and propriety, in the following sentences:

1. The religion of the people, as well as their customs and manners, were strangely misrepresented. 2. The king soon found reason to repent him of provoking such dangerous enemies. 3. The popular lords did not fail to enlarge themselves on the subject. 4. I shall endeavor to live hereafter suitable to a man in my station. 5. It was thought that the *coup d'état* would have occasioned an *émeute*. 6. The *dernier ressort* of the emperor will be to make the *amende honorable*; but *nous verrons*. 7. You can't bamboozle me with such excuses. 8. I should be obliged to him, if he will gratify me in that particular. 9. May is *par excellence* the month of flowers; it is delicious at this season to go stroaming about the fields.

1. One is in a bad fix *that* has to spend a rainy day away from home. 2. It is difficult for one unaccustomed to [sophism, or sophistry?] to succeed in a [sophism, or sophistry?]. 3. We may try hard, and still be [further, or farther] from success than ever. 4. Every thing goes helter-skelter and topsy-turvy, when a man leaves his business to be done by others. 5. The alone principle; — the balance of them; — at a wide remove; — I learned him the lesson; — to fall trees; — like he did; — we started directly they came; — 6. What [further, or farther?] need have we of caution? 7. Still [further, or farther?], what evidence have we of this? 8. One brave [act, or action?] often changes defeat into victory. 9. Our [acts, or actions?] genera'ly proceed from instinct or impulse; our [acts, or actions?] are more frequently the result of deliberation.

SUPERScription.

STAMP.

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INTRODUCTION TO THE CRITICAL DIGEST.

In this work it is the intention that the Graded Method be completed before the work in the Critical Digest be commenced. The former is a method of teaching language through the medium of the science; the latter is designed as a concise exposition of the science itself. Those who insist on commencing with the Critical Digest will forfeit all the advantages afforded by this modern method, while those who pursue the course here suggested will find in the latter part an enjoyable review of the detail of the science, a knowledge of nearly all of which was acquired in the Graded Method.

SUPERScription.

STAMP.

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A
CRITICAL DIGEST
OF
ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

1. **Language** is the expression of thought by means of words, spoken or written.

2. **Grammar** is the science that treats of the principles of language.

3. **English Grammar** teaches how to speak and write the English language correctly.

Remark. — As a science it explains the structure of our language. As an art it lays down rules for its correct use.

4. English Grammar is divided into four parts: *Orthography, Etymology, Syntax and Prosody.*

5. **Orthography** treats of letters, syllables, separate words and spelling.

6. **Etymology** treats of the classification, derivation and properties of words.

7. **Syntax** treats of the relation, agreement, government and arrangement of words in sentences.

8. **Prosody** treats of the quantity of syllables, of accent and of the laws of versification.

A more strict analysis of the science of language limits to a considerable extent the scope of grammar, by assigning to places more appropriate, several of the kinds of knowledge vaguely included in grammatical science.

Orthography forms the subject-matter of special manuals of spelling, and is to be learned from these and from the dictionary. Prosody is a branch of rhetoric, or English composition. Etymology does not properly belong to grammar, but is to be studied in text-books of etymology or word-analysis.

It thus appears that grammar, in its strict sense, is limited to two departments of language-study: Etymology and Syntax.

ORTHOGRAPHY.

DEFINITIONS.

1. **Orthography** treats of elementary sounds, letters, syllables and spelling.

2. An **Elementary Sound** is one which can not be separated into two or more distinct sounds.

3. **Letters** are signs invented to represent vocal sounds.

Thoughts and historical facts were first represented by pictures; from these pictures the letters of our alphabet have been derived.

Letters are divided into Vowels and Consonants. Vowels represent open sounds and are formed by the act of breathing upon the vocal chords. Consonants represent sounds produced by direct contact of particular organs of speech.

4. There are twenty-six letters in our alphabet. Of these, all are consonants except the five vowels, *a*, *e*, *i*, *o*, *u*.

Remark. — The letters *w* and *y* have consonant-sounds at the beginning of a word or syllable, and vowel-sounds at the end of a word or syllable.

5. A **Syllable** is a sound or a combination of sounds produced by a single impulse of the voice.

6. A **Word** may be either a syllable or a combination of syllables.

Examples. — *Man, man-hood, in-ter-me-di-ate.*

There are forty-two elementary sounds in the English language. Since there are only twenty-six letters in the English alphabet it becomes necessary that some letters represent more than one sound.

7. A **Diphthong** consists of two vocals sounded together in the same syllable.

Examples. — In *boil*, oi; in *few*, ew.

8. A **Digraph** consists of two vowels written together in the same syllable, one only being pronounced.

Examples. — *Ao*, gaol; *au*, maul; *aw*, maw; *ay*, may; *ea*, meat; *ee*, need; *ei*, ceiling; *eo*, people; *eu*, feud; *ew*, new; *ey*, they; *ie*, lief; *oa*, coat; *oe*, foe; *oi*, avoirdupois; *oo*, moon; *ou*, tour; *ow*, flow; *ua*, guard.

9. A **Trigraph** consists of three vowels written together in the same syllable.

Examples. — *Eau*, beauty; *eou*, gorgeous; *ieu*, lieu; *awe*, awe; *iew*, view; *aye*, aye.

10. A **Double Consonant** consists of two consonants written together and representing but one elementary sound.

Examples. — *Wh*, when; *ng*, sing; *th*, thin; *sh*, hush; *ch*, chaise, chord; *gh*, laugh; *ph*, physic.

FORMS OF THE LETTERS.

1. Various sizes and styles of type are used in printing:

Great Primer,	Small Pica,	Minion,
English,	Long Primer,	Nonpareil,
Pica,	Bourgeois,	Agate,
	Brevier,	Pearl,
		Diamond,

2. The larger letters are called CAPITALS; the others, small letters. These forms of letters were used by the Romans more than two thousand years ago. Hence they are called Roman letters.

Roman.

Italics.

Script.

3. The *Italics* are so called because they are used by the people of Italy in writing their language, the *Italian*.

CAPITAL LETTERS.

1. The first word of every sentence should begin with a capital letter.

2. The first word in every line of poetry should begin with a capital letter.

3. The first word of a direct quotation should begin with a capital letter.

Direct Quotation. — Cowper says, "Slaves can not breathe in England."

Indirect Quotation. — Cowper says that slaves can not breathe in England.

4. The names of persons, places, days, months, countries, cities, rivers, mountains — all proper nouns, should begin with capital letters.

Examples. — John, Hilda, Cincinnati, Ohio, France, Paris, London, Wednesday, July, Danube, Mt. Tabor, Pikes Peak, Mr. W. A. Holmes.

5. Titles of distinction or honor, when used alone, or when accompanied by names, should begin with capital letters.

Examples. — The *Elder* was present this morning; We saw the *Duke* of York and *Earl* Russell; *Dr.* Johnson; *Gen.* Harrison; *Sir* Robert Peel; George the *Third*; Charles the *Bold*.

6. Words and phrases used as the names of particular objects should begin with capital letters.

Examples. — They have just returned from the Cape of Good Hope; We passed through the City of Brotherly Love and visited the Falls; John o' Groat's House; the Round Tower; the Sailor's Home; I have read The Tent on the Block.

7. The personal pronoun *I*, the interjection *O*, and single letters forming abbreviations of proper names, should be capital letters.

8. All appellations of the Deity should begin with capital letters.

Examples. — Divine Providence; the Father, the Son, and the Holy Ghost; our Lord Jesus Christ; God; the Most High; the Supreme; the Infinite One;

In the use of pronouns referring to expressed antecedents which are names of the Deity, capitals are sometimes used, but not always. In this as well as in many other instances the good taste of the writer must decide.

Examples. — “God provides for all *his* creatures;” “The hope of my spirit turns trembling to *Thee*;” “O thou merciful God!” “Trust in *Him*, for *He* will sustain thee.”

9. Names denoting the race or nation of individuals should begin with capital letters.

Examples. — The Italians; the Americans; the Hungarians; the Mexicans; the Anglo-Saxons.

10. Adjectives derived from proper nouns should begin with capital letters.

Examples. — Italian fruits; American goods; Hungarian soldiers; Mexican leather; the Russian army.

11. Names of things addressed — things personified, should begin with capital letters.

Example. — “Come, gentle *Spring*! ethereal *Mildness*! come.”

12. Words of special importance usually begin with capital letters.

Examples. — Be prepared for the Great Day; Angler’s Companion; a Complete and Superior Treatise on the art of Angling; the Commissioners of Public Schools.

13. In titles and headings the nouns, the adjectives, the participles and other important words should begin with capital letters. The unimportant words should begin with small letters.

14. The first word after an introductory clause, or an introductory word, should begin with a capital letter.

Examples. — “*Resolved*, That the Committee,” etc. “Be it enacted by the House of Delegates, That the fourteenth section,” etc.

EXERCISES TO BE CORRECTED.

1. "The day is past and gone;
the evening shades appear;
O may we all remember well
the night of death draws near."
2. The question is, which of them can best pay the penalty?
3. The answer may be, yes or no.
4. The bible says, children, obey your parents.
5. The central park; the Ohio river; I have read "great expectations;" the mountains of the moon are in Africa.
6. "I know that my redeemer liveth;" "I am the way, the truth, the life;" "The word was made flesh."
7. This chief had the sounding appellation of white thunder.
8. In ancient days there dwelt a sage called discipline.
9. There lay madam partlet, basking in the sun, breast-high in sand.
10. The emancipation proclamation; the Missouri compromise; "A treatise on the science of education and the art of teaching."
11. This county was settled by welsh emigrants, who were zealous christians, and entered heartily into our revolutionary struggle.
12. New year's day and the fourth of July are holidays.
13. Cowper, the Author of the Task, was a good Poet.
14. The secretary of state visited fortress Monroe.
15. The green mountains are in vermont; but green mountains may be seen in any mountainous country. An act of congress should be of greater importance than an act of a clown. Lord's day means sunday. "My dear mother," "my dear friend," "my dear sister." "My dear sir," "my dear aunt lacy," "friend miller." "Dear teacher," "my dear teacher." Where is john? Dear sir. Thomas said, "my lord and my god." Chas. went to boston wednesday, june 1st.
16. Gen. robt. e. lee and pres. grant. Gentle summer is going. The sailor's home. The boston news letter. The english capital new york. The great day is coming.

ITALICS AND SMALL CAPITALS.

1. Words borrowed from foreign languages should be printed in italics.

Examples.—Venturing upon *extempore* matter; “This old *quid pro quo* surprised me into vehement laughter.”—*Walpole*.

2. Emphatic words, phrases and clauses are sometimes printed in italics.

Examples.—When *words* have made me stay, I fled from *blows*; The truth is, his lordship *weeps for the puss*; A mere *string of sentences* is not a composition.

3. The names of authors placed at the end of quotations from their writings are generally printed in italics.

Example.—“Each word stood quite *per se*.”—*Lamb*.

4. Names of periodicals and books, names of ships and palace cars and many other similar names are generally printed in italics or small capitals.

Examples.—The HOME JOURNAL is on the table; The BELLE OF MEMPHIS sank in shallow water; The *Cumberland* stands on the fifth track; He has a copy of the *Royal Path of Life*.

In manuscripts, one line drawn under a word indicates *italics*; two lines, SMALL CAPITALS; three lines, CAPITALS.

Italicized words in the Bible are those supplied by translators to explain the original.

WORDS.

1. A **Word** may consist of one or more syllables.
2. A **Monosyllable** is a word of one syllable.
3. A **Dissyllable** is a word of two syllables.
4. A **Trisyllable** is a word of three syllables.

5. A **Polysyllable** is a word of four or more syllables.

6. A **Primitive** word is a root-word, or a primary sound representing an idea.

7. A **Derivative** word is a word derived from a root-word by the addition of one or more syllables.

Primitive — *mind, faith, call, join, man.*

Derivative.— *Re-mind, faith-ful, re-call, con-join, man-hood.*

8. **Compound** words may be either primitive or derivative. They are formed by the union of two or more other words.

Examples. — *Ill-will, man-worship, poverty-stricken, Anglo-Saxon, double-headed.*

9. A **Prefix** is that part of a derivative word which is placed before the radical. (Page 125.)

10. A **Suffix** is that part of a derivative word which is placed after the radical.

Direction.—The meaning and use of prefixes and suffixes should be learned by a systematic study of the work in that section of this volume which is devoted to the analysis of words.

Both prefixes and suffixes may consist of more than one syllable. Words of more than one syllable are accented.

11. **Accent** is the stress of voice placed upon a particular syllable in a word.

12. **Correct pronunciation** follows the usage of the best speakers.

Remark.—The dictionary is supposed to give the best usage, but sometimes custom prevails over the authority of the dictionary.

RULES FOR SPELLING.

Spelling is the art of expressing words by their right letters, properly arranged. This art must be acquired chiefly from spelling books, dictionaries, and observation in reading.

The spelling-book used should be a companion or word-list to the readers. The new words found in each reading lesson form a group in the companion spelling-book, and this group should be taught as a spelling lesson a few days before the reading lesson is assigned. By adhering to this plan the *new words* become a review lesson at the reading recitation.

1. Monosyllables ending in *f*, *l*, or *s*, preceded by a single vowel, double the final consonant.

Examples. — *Staff, mill, pass*: except *clef, if, of, bul, nul, sal, sol, as, gas* has, was, yes, is, his, this, us, thus, pus.

2. Words ending in any other consonant than *f*, *l*, or *s*, do not double the final letter.

Exceptions. — *Abb, ebb, add, odd, egg, inn, err, burr, purr, yarr, butt, buzz, fuzz*, and some proper names.

3. Monosyllables, and words accented on the last syllable, when they end with a single consonant preceded by a single vowel, double their final consonant before an additional syllable that begins with a vowel.

Examples. — *Rob, robber; permit, permitting; acquit, acquittal, acquitting.*

Exceptions. — *X, k, and v*, are never doubled and *gas* has *gases* in the plural.

4. A final consonant, when it is not preceded by a single vowel, or when the accent is not on the last

syllable, should remain single before an additional syllable.

Examples. — *Toil, toiling; visit, visited; general, generalize.*

5. Words ending with any double letter preserve it double before any additional termination, not beginning with the same letter.

Examples. — *Seeing, blissful, oddly, hilly, stiffness, illness, smallness, carelessness, agreement, agreeable.*

6. Final *e*, is dropped before a suffix beginning with a vowel.

Examples. — *Fine, finer; love, loving.*

Exceptions. — The *e*, is retained (1) after *c* and *g*, when the suffix begins with *a* or *o*; as, *peaceable, changeable*; (2) after *o*; as, *hoeing*; and (3) when it is needed to preserve the identity of the word; as, *singeing, dyeing*.

7. Final *y*, preceded by a consonant, changes to *i* when a suffix is added not beginning with *i*.

Examples. — *Witty, wittier; dry, dried.*

Letter of Introduction.

A letter given by one person to another for the purpose of introducing the latter to some other person, is called a LETTER OF INTRODUCTION.

Toledo, O., May 30th, 1891.

My dear Friend,

This will introduce to you Mr. William Howard, an old and dear acquaintance of mine. He is visiting your city for the first time, and any attention it may be in your power to show him during his stay will be highly esteemed by him, and regarded as a personal favor by

Yours very sincerely,

Henry M. Brown.

*Mr. O. H. Thompson,
Cleveland, Ohio.*

Springfield, Mo, Aug. 24, 1889.

Nixon-Jones Printing Co.,
St. Louis, Mo.

Gentlemen,--

I have seen your advertisement in the St. Louis papers for a youth to learn the printing business, and I beg to offer myself for the place.

I am fourteen years of age, and am not afraid to work. I attended the Public School of this town for four years, and have since been attending the Commercial College. These facts will give you an idea of my scholarship, and, as evidence of my good character, I enclose testimonials from the President of the College and my former teacher.

Requesting the favor of an interview, I am,

Yours, very respectfully,
Henry A. Ward.

ETYMOLOGY,

PARTS OF SPEECH.

Etymology is that part of grammar which treats of the classification, modification and derivation of words.

Words are divided into classes called **parts of speech**; namely, the *noun*, the *adjective*, the *pronoun*, the *verb*, the *participle*, the *adverb*, the *preposition*, the *conjunction* and the *interjection*.

A **Noun** is a word used as the name of any object.

A **Pronoun** is a word that stands for a noun.

A **Verb** is a word which expresses being, action, or state. (Page 8.)

An **Adjective** is a word that describes or points out a noun. (Page 10.)

An **Adverb** is a word used to modify the meaning of a verb, an adjective, or another adverb.

A **Preposition** is a word used to show the relation between a following noun or pronoun and some other word. (Page 28.)

Remark. — A **Preposition** is a word used with a noun or pronoun to form a phrase that is used as a modifier.

A **Conjunction** is a word used to connect words, phrases and sentences. (Page 111.)

An **Interjection** is a word used to denote some sudden or strong emotion. (Page 114.)

A **Participle** is a word derived from a verb, and partakes of the properties of a verb and of an adjective or noun.

Remark. — The **Participle** is a form of the verb that may be used as a noun or an adjective. (Page 62.)

CLASSES OF NOUNS.

1. There are two classes of Nouns: Common and Proper.

2. A **Common Noun** is a name which may be applied to any one of a kind or class of objects; as, *child*, *book*, *astronomy*.

3. A **Proper Noun** is the name of some particular person, place, people or thing. All *Proper Nouns* should begin with *Capitals*; as, *Henry*, *Indiana*, *Bloomington*, the *French*.

A *proper noun* distinguishes an object from the class to which it belongs. When a proper noun is used in such a manner as to admit of its application to each individual of a class, it becomes a common noun.

Example. — He is the *Webster* of this school; Bolivar was the *Washington* of South America. He is the *Cicero* of our age.

4. Common Nouns are generally divided into four classes :

Class Nouns, names which may be applied to each individual of a class of objects: *Man*, *tree*, *house*, *bird*.

Abstract Nouns, names of qualities: *tenacity*, *brilliancy*, *cohesion*, *hardness*, *ductility*.

Collective Nouns, names singular in form but representing more than one: *swarm, assembly, army, jury*.

Participial Nouns, names of actions or states of being: *walking, sleeping, thinking*.

PROPERTIES OF NOUNS.

1. The **Properties of Nouns** are *Gender, Person, Number* and *Case*. (Page 72.)

2. **Gender** is a distinction of nouns and pronouns with regard to sex.

The **Masculine** gender denotes males. The **Feminine** gender denotes females. The **Common** gender denotes *either* males or females. The **Neuter** gender denotes *neither* males nor females.

3. The **Masculine** and **Feminine** genders are distinguished in three ways:

1. By the use of different words:

Examples. — Sir, Madam; nephew, niece; son, daughter; uncle, aunt; Charles, Caroline; Augustus, Augusta; bridegroom, bride; brother, sister; boy, girl; cock, hen; drake, duck; earl, countess; father, mother; gentleman, lady; hart, roe; male, female; man, woman; Mr., Mrs.

2. By the use of different terminations:

Examples. — Host, hostess; baron, baroness; abbott, abbess; sorcerer, sorceress; murderer, murderess; prior, prioress; benefactor, benefactress; executor, executrix.

3. By the use of prefixes and suffixes:

Examples. — Man-servant, maid-servant; he-bear, she-bear; male-descendant, female-descendant; cock-sparrow, hen-sparrow; Mr. Smith, Mrs. Smith, Miss Smith; pea-cock, pea-hen.

When the sex is not apparent the *neuter* pronoun is sometimes used ; as, **It is a fine bird.**

The masculine pronoun is preferred to the feminine when the sex is not definitely known.

Examples.— Every *person* should try to improve *his* mind. *Each* of the pupils should procure a book for his own exclusive use. *A parent should care for the education of his child.*

Things without life are said to be **personified** when they are spoken to, or spoken of, as persons or living beings.

Examples.— “ Roll on, thou dark and deep blue ocean, roll ! ”
“ *Charity seeketh not her own.* ”

Personification endows a neuter noun with the attributes of sex ; as,

“ And Belgium’s capital had gathered then
Her beauty and *her* chivalry.” — BYRON.

4. **Person** is that property of noun or pronoun which distinguishes the **speaker**, the person **spoken to**, and the person or object **spoken of**. (Page 73.)

The **First** person denotes the *speaker*. The **Second** person denotes the person *spoken to*. The **Third** person denotes the person or object *spoken of*.

Punctuation.— *Names of persons spoken to should be separated from the rest of the sentence by a comma.*

Remark.— A writer often speaks of himself in the third person ; as, M Collins has the pleasure of informing Mr. Ingerson that he has been promoted to the managing editor’s chair.

A noun in the predicate is third person even when the subject is first or second.

Examples. — We are the *men*. You are *strangers* to us. Go no further, I am *he*.

NUMBER.

Number is a property of nouns that distinguishes one thing from more than one.

The **Singular Number** denotes but one thing. The **Plural Number** denotes more things than one.

FORMATION OF THE PLURAL.

Most nouns form their plural number by adding *s* to the singular; as, *house, houses; book, books*.

Nouns ending in *ch* soft, *o* preceded by a consonant *s, sh, x, or z*, form their plural by adding *es* to the singular.

Examples. — Match, matches; tomato, tomatoes; cross, crosses; brush, brushes; box, boxes; waltz, waltzes.

Pluralize, *Volcano, tornado, cargo, hero, calico, embargo, motto, grotto, innuendo, potato, negro, mulatto, mosquito*.

Some nouns in *o* preceded by a consonant add *s* only.

Examples. — Pianos, juntos, provisos, quartos, duodecimos, halos, cantos, solos, tyros, octavos.

Nouns ending in *o* preceded by a vowel, follow the general rule and add *s*; as, *folio, folios*.

Nouns ending in *y* preceded by a consonant change *y* into *i* and add *es*.

Examples. — Mercy, mercies; glory, glories; army, armies.

Nouns ending in *y* preceded by a vowel follow the general rule of adding *s*.

Examples. — Storey, storeys; chimney, chimneys.

Pluralize, *Valley, fairy, daisy, city, attorney, alley, ally, fancy, kidney, lady, lily, money, monkey, soliloquy, turkey.*

Most nouns ending in *f* change *f* to *v* and add *es*; those ending in *fe* change *f* to *v* and add *s*.

Examples. — Wife, wives; beef, beeves; elf, elves; calf, calves; loaf, loaves; thief, thieves; wolf, wolves; half, halves; leaf, leaves; shelf, shelves.

Some nouns ending in *f* and *fe* follow the general rule and add *s*.

Examples. — Hoops, proofs, gulfs, fifes, dwarfs, chiefs, briefs, beliefs, reefs, safes, waifs, safes.

Pluralize, *calf, elf, half, knife, leaf, life, loaf, self, sheaf, shelf, thief, wife, wolf.*

Some nouns form their plurals irregularly; as, man, *men*; ox, *oxen*; tooth, *teeth*; mouse, *mice*.

Letters, figures, and other characters, are made plural by annexing 's.

Examples. — The *a*'s and *n*'s in the first line. Mind your *p*'s and *q*'s; the 9's and 11's; the *'s; the + 's; "Those 3's and 9's.

In compound words *the part* which is described by the rest is generally pluralized.

Examples. — Wagon-loads; courts-martial; brothers-in-law.

Some compound words have both parts made plural.

Examples. — Man-servant, *men-servants*; knight-templar, *knights-templars*; ignis-fatuus, *ignes-fatui*.

Compounds ending in *ful*, and all those in which the principal word is put last, form the plural by annexing *s*.

Examples. — Handfuls, spoonfuls, mouthfuls, fellow-servants, man-servants.

Compound terms composed of a proper noun and a title may

be pluralized by adding a plural termination to either the **name** or the **title**, but not to both; as, the *Miss Whites* or the *Misses White*.

Pluralize, *Mr. Jones, General Grant, Miss Collins, Dr. Brown, Miss Clark, Mrs. Hardy.*

A title used with two or more different names is made plural.

Examples. — Drs. Hill and Vastine; Messrs. Hall and Hamilton.

Many nouns have two plurals, but with a difference in meaning.

Examples. — Fish, *fishes* (individuals), *fish* (quantity, or the species); genius, *geniuses* (men of genius), *genii* (spirits); index, *indexes* (tables of contents), *indices* (algebraic signs); brother, *brothers* (of the same family), *brethren* (of the same society).

Nouns from foreign languages retain their original plurals. (Page 77.)

Examples. — Index, indices; crisis, crises; calix, calices; ephemeris, ephemerides; thesis, theses; criterion, criteria; calculus calculi; cherub, cherubim *or* cherubs; datum, data; ellipsis, ellipses; erratum, errata; ignis fatuus, ignes fatui; madame, mesdames; monsieur, messieurs; nebula, *nebulæ*; radius, radii *or* radiuses; seraph, seraphim *or* seraphs; stratum, strata; synopsis, synopses; terminus, termini; vertebra, *vertebræ*; vortex, vortices *or* vortexes.

The names of things *weighed* or *measured* are generally used in the singular number only.

Examples. — Tea, flour, barley, ale, wheat, cotton.

Some nouns having a *plural form* are frequently treated as nouns in the *singular* number. (Page 77.)

Examples. — Mathematics, alms, news, means, shambles, amends, ethics, optics.

Some nouns are used in the plural only.

Examples. — Wages, ashes, bellows, billiards, bowels, compasses, entrails, intestines, measles, oats, pincers, scissors, snuffers, thanks, tongs, trousers, vespers.

CASE.

1. **Case** is that property of nouns and pronouns which shows how they are used in the construction of sentences.

There are three cases: the *nominative*, the *possessive*, and the *objective*.

Remark. — These three cases admit of only two forms: the nominative and objective, which are one and the same form, and the possessive.

2. The **Nominative Case** is the use of a noun or pronoun as the subject or the predicate of a sentence.

Examples. — *Henry* is your friend; *I* am *he*.

The **Nominative Absolute Case** is the use of a noun independent of any governing word.

Examples. — “*John*, bring me a book;” “Your *fathers*, where are they?” “*Honor* being lost, all is lost.” (Page 51.)

3. The **Possessive Case** denotes possession or ownership.

Examples. — William took *George's* hat.

4. The **Objective Case** is the use of a noun or pronoun as the object of a transitive verb or preposition, or the subject of an infinitive.

Examples. — We saw your *brother*. (Page 17.) He gave it to *me*. (Page 29.) Henry wanted *me* to go. (Page 57.)

The possessive term is always used as a modifier—an adjective element. (Page 15.)

Examples.—Touched by *thy* hand, again *Rome's* glories shine; *Our Country's* Welfare; *Your* being an American.

DECLENSION OF NOUNS.

1. The **Declension** of a noun or pronoun is a regular arrangement of its numbers and cases.

EXAMPLES OF DECLENSION.

<i>Singular.</i>		<i>Plural.</i>		<i>Singular.</i>		<i>Plural.</i>	
<i>Nom.</i>	fox,	foxes,		<i>Nom.</i>	Sheep	Sheep	
<i>Poss.</i>	fox's,	foxes',		<i>Poss.</i>	Sheep's	Sheep's	
<i>Obj.</i>	fox;	foxes.		<i>Obj.</i>	Sheep	Sheep	
				<i>Nom.</i>	Lady	Ladies	
<i>Nom.</i>	Man	Men		<i>Poss.</i>	Lady's	Ladies'	
<i>Poss.</i>	Man's	Men's		<i>Obj.</i>	Lady	Ladies	
<i>Obj.</i>	Man	Men					

Write the declension of the following nouns:

Goose, sheep, child, mouse, woman, wife, ox, horse, James, boy, lady, bird, prince, princess, teacher, scholar, parent, farmer.

3. The **Possessive Form** of *singular nouns* and of plural nouns which do not end in *s* is made by annexing to the name of the owner an apostrophe (') and the letter *s*; as, Webster's Dictionary; men's hats; sheep's wool; oxen's horns. (Page 117.)

4. The **Possessive Form** of *plural nouns* ending in *s* and of singular nouns ending in *s* is generally formed by annexing the apostrophe only; as, Soldiers' camp; Boys' shoes; Xerxes' army; Teachers' Association.

Many writers fail to recognize established rules for the formation of singular nouns, especially proper nouns ending with an s-sound; as, "*Dennis's Works.*"—*Pope*. "*Louis's reign.*"—*Macaulay*. "*Charles's affairs.*"—*Prescott*.

When nouns in the possessive case are connected by a conjunction, or put in apposition, the sign of possession must always be annexed to such, and such only, as immediately precede the modified noun.

Examples.—William and Mary's reign; Do it for Henry, my friend's, sake; George and Matilda's teacher; *Everybody else's business*.

When the different possessors are thought of as separate or opposed, the sign may be repeated, although joint possession is implied.

Examples.—He was his *father's, mother's, and sister's* favorite. He was the *king's* as well as the *people's* favorite.

When a noun is put in apposition with a noun or pronoun in the possessive case, the sign may be omitted.

Examples.—This was *Hamilton's* opinion, the most distinguished scholar present. That carriage is *Walter Brown's, the latter*. (Page 117.)

To avoid a concurrence of hissing sounds, the *s* is sometimes omitted, and the apostrophe only retained.

Examples.—*Perkins' Geometry. Achilles' wrath. For conscience' sake. Felix' book.*

Without the *s* there is no distinction, in spoken language, between Miss Clintie Evans and Miss Clintie Evans'; Mrs. Heman's and Mrs. Hemans'. For that reason usage favors the use of *s*: Miss Clintie Evans's, Mrs. Hemans's.

Remark.—Pronounce the (*s*) as a separate syllable (= *es*), when the sound of *s* will not unite with the last sound of the nominative.

Explanation.—In the Anglo-Saxon language, *es* was a genitive, that is, a possessive, termination of the singular; as, *nominative*, Smith; *genitive*, Smithes. In modern English the *e* is dropped, and the apostrophe (') stands in its place.

The apostrophe and *s* are sometimes annexed to that part of a *compound name*, which is, of itself, in the objective case.

Examples.—He lives in the captain-of-the-guard's house. It belongs to my brother-in-law's estate. The keeper of the park's carriage has arrived. The Mayor of Cleveland's address. (Page 117.)

In many instances it is far more elegant to make use of that form of expression in which the relation of possession is expressed by the use of the preposition *of*, with its object.

Examples.—The wrath of Achilles. He lives in the house of the captain-of-the-guard. The address of the Mayor of Cleveland. The house of my friend's father.

Write the possessive singular and the possessive plural of each of the following nouns:

Hero, negro, volcano, mosquito, tyro, junto, cuckoo, buffalo, princess, genius, horse, lion, king, farmer, actor, fairy, elephant, lady, monkey, wolf, thief, elf, wife, calf, goose, child, mouse, ox, woman, beau, sheep, beer, fish, seraph.

Make each of the following terms indicate possession, first by the use of the possessive sign and afterwards by means of the preposition of, and its object. Use a name representing the thing possessed:

William and Mary, Socrates, mountain, father-in-law, William the Conqueror, king of Great Britain, aid-de-camp, Henry the Eighth, attorney-at-law, somebody else, Jefferson, enemy, hero, eagle, elephant, gunpowder, book, house, chair.

Case Forms	{	Nominative. Mary, Xerxes, lady, ladies.
		Possessive. Mary's, Xerxes', lady's, ladies'.
		Objective. Mary, Xerxes, lady, ladies.

Correct the following sentences and improve by reconstructing when necessary:

1. We purchased our books at Penfield's the druggist's. 2. The college was founded in William's and Mary's reign. 3. The boys story was doubted. 4. This was John's, Charles's and Robert's estate. 5. He wore the knight's-templar's costume. 7. The

goods were sent by the Merchant's Union Express. 8. That book is his'n. 9. The Bishop's of Dublin's palace. 10. We were comparing Cæsar and Napoleon's victories. 11. This is Tennyson's the poet's home.

2. It was John, not Henry's fault. 2. It was George, not John's fault. 3. This belongs to Victoria's, queen of England's, dominion. 4. This province is Victoria's, queen of England's. 5. That language is Homer's, the greatest poet of antiquity's. 6. My fathers hat is lost. 7. This is my wife's father's house. 8. This was Franklin's motto; the distinguished philosopher's and statesman's. 9. Wolsey's, the cardinal's, career ended in disgrace. 10. Fraver's and England's interests differ widely. 11. My brother's wife's sister's drawings have been much admired. 12. The drawings of the sister of the wife of my brother have been much admired.

Sometimes the possessive case ending is omitted. In such cases the nouns simply become adjectives.

Examples. — He took a three *miles* walk every day. The teachers committee made the report.

Punctuation.—*The semicolon is used to separate the members of a compound sentence, when the connective is omitted.*

COMPOSITION.

Write a composition on "fox," paying attention to the following points:

1. The different kinds of foxes.
2. Where they live.
3. How they live.
4. What they eat.
5. How they are caught or killed.
6. What their skins are used for.
7. Relate an anecdote about a fox, or give an account of a fox-hunt.

Subjects Suggested. — Eagles, pigeons, crows, robins, tigers, condors.

ORDER OF PARSING THE NOUN.

NOUN.	CLASS.	GENDER.	PERSON.	NUMBER.	CASE.	R.
	Common Proper	Masculine Feminine Neuter Common	First Second Third	Singular Plural	Nominative Possessive Objective	

MODELS FOR PARSING.

1. The *Romans* conquered Carthage.
2. *News* has been received of the *general's* defeat.
3. *William*, your sister, Matilda, called for you.

Nouns.	CLASS.	GENDER.	PERSON.	NUMBER.	CASE.	R.
"Romans,"	prop.,	masc.,	third,	plur.,	nom.,	1.
"News,"	com.,	neut.,	third,	sing.,	nom.,	1.
"General's,"	com.,	masc.,	third,	sing.,	poss.,	3.
"Defeat,"	com.,	neut.,	third,	sing.,	obj.,	7.
"William,"	prop.,	masc.,	second,	sing.,	nom.,	5.
"Matilda,"	prop.,	fem.,	third,	sing.,	nom.,	4.

EXERCISE.

Parse the nouns:

1. *Henry* has two Mexican *dollars*. 2. The Italian *consul* demanded an *explanation*. 3. That German *steamer* brought a *cargo* of French and British *merchandise* into *port*. 4. *George*, I wish you would procure for me a *bar* of Swedish *iron* and a Turkish *cutlass*. 5. The storm's *fury* is *past*. 6. The defeat of *Xerxes'* army was the downfall of *Persia*.

Capitals. — *Adjectives formed from proper nouns should begin with capitals; as, Roman, Italian, Persian.*

THE PRONOUN.

1. A **Pronoun** is a part of speech which is used to represent a noun.

The **Antecedent** of a pronoun is the noun, or equivalent expression, instead of which the pronoun is used.

2. A **Personal Pronoun** is a pronoun that by its form marks person. It distinguishes the speaker, the person spoken to, and the person or thing spoken of.

Pronouns	{	Personal: <i>I, thou, or you, he, she, it.</i>
	{	Relative: <i>Who, which, what, that, as.</i>
		Interrogative: <i>Who ? which ? what ?</i>
		Possessive: <i>Mine, thine, his, hers, ours, yours, theirs.</i>

3. The **Simple Personal Pronouns** are *I, thou* or *you, he, she* and *it*, with their declined forms.

You is plural in form and requires a verb in the plural even when it represents a singular noun.

Mine and **thine** were formerly used before words commencing with a vowel sound, in preference to *my* and *thy*. They are still used thus in poetry.

Thou, thy, thine, thee, thyself, and **ye**, though used in the sacred writings, are now seldom used except in poetry and in solemn style. They may be regarded as antiquated forms.

We is often used in place of **I** when the writer or speaker wishes to avoid the appearance of egotism.

Examples. — *We* formerly agreed with him but we have changed *our* mind. “We, Louis XIV., King of France, do proclaim.”

It is sometimes used as the subject without referring to any particular antecedent.

Examples. — It rains; It seems to me; It is cold.

Since the English language is destitute of a pronoun of the third person singular and common gender, usage sanctions the employment of the masculine forms *he, his, him*, for that purpose.

Examples. — In speaking to the pupils generally, we say, "Every pupil should prepare *his* lesson carefully." "No pupil should be found who has not done *his* whole duty.

4. When pronouns of different persons are used in the same sentence,

- (1) The **second** person singular should *precede* the *third*:
You and *he* may go.
- (2) The **third** person singular should *precede* the *first*:
He and *I* will meet you.
- (3) The **first** person, the **second** person, the **third** person,
is the order when the pronouns are *plural*: *We, you* and *they* depart soon.

A LETTER.

My Dear Father,—

You were kind enough to promise me, when I left home, that you would give me anything in reason that I chose to request, when I had gone through the first book of Cæsar. My teacher is ready to certify that I have won the promised reward. And now, dear father, my request is that I be allowed to come home for one week. I have studied faithfully all this term, and my preceptor is perfectly willing to allow me this boon, if you are also willing. I long with a homesick heart to embrace you all, and am certain that I shall improve more rapidly after a few days of entire rest from brain work. Hoping to see you soon,

I remain,

Your loving son^l,

Henry.

4. The **Compound Personal Pronouns** are formed by adding *self* or *selves* to some form of the Simple Personals.

The Compound Personal Pronouns are declined as follows :

FIRST PERSON.

<i>Singular.</i>		<i>Plural.</i>	
<i>Nom. and Obj.</i>	Myself.	<i>Nom. and Obj.</i>	Ourselves.

SECOND PERSON.

<i>Singular.</i>		<i>Plural.</i>	
<i>Nom. and Obj.</i>	Thyself or Yourself.	<i>Nom. and Obj.</i>	Yourselves.

THIRD PERSON.

<i>Singular.</i>		<i>Plural.</i>	
MAS., FEM. AND NEUT.			
<i>Nom. and Obj.</i>	{ Himself, { Herself, { Itself.	<i>Nom. and Obj.</i>	Themselves.

The compound personal pronouns are used in the **nominative** and **objective** cases only.

5. A **Relative Pronoun** is used to represent a preceding word or phrase called its **antecedent**, to which it joins a modifying clause.

The **Simple Relative Pronouns** are *who*, *which*, *what*, *that* and *as*. They do not vary in person and number.

Who is applied to persons, **which** to animals and inanimate things, **that** to persons and things, **what** to things.

Remark.—Relatives serve two purposes in a sentence; one to represent nouns; the other to join a modifying clause to the antecedent.

What and **that** have no declension.

DECLENSION OF **Who**.

<i>Singular and Plural.</i>	{	<i>Nom.</i>	who
	{	<i>Poss.</i>	whose
	{	<i>Obj.</i>	whom

Remark.— **That** and **What** are frequently used as definitive adjectives; as, *That* boy took your book. *What* kind of paper do you want?

Who is sometimes used for *he that*; as,

“*Who* steals my purse steals trash.” — SHAKESPEARE.

DECLENSION OF **Which**.

Singular and Plural.	{	Nom.	which
		Poss.	whose
		Obj.	which

Which formerly applied to persons as well as to things.

Remark.— Ben Jonson speaks of “our one relative *which*.” Addison, two centuries later, pleads for the use of *who* and *which*, as against the introduction of the relative *that*.

What is sometimes used for *that which*. Besides being a *relative*, it is used as

- (1) An interrogative pronoun: What did you say?
- (2) A definitive adjective: What day is this?
- (3) An interjection: What! have you lost your wits?
- (4) An adverb: “What (*partly*) by force, and *what* by fraud, he secures his ends.”

6. An **Interrogative Pronoun** is a pronoun employed in asking questions.

Who, **which** and **what**, when used in asking questions, are called *interrogative pronouns*; as, *Who* did this? *Which* is the book? *What* do you want?

Remark.— The **Subsequent** of an Interrogative Pronoun is that part of the answer which is represented by it. It corresponds to the antecedent of the relative pronoun.

The interrogatives, *who* and *which*, are declined like the corresponding relatives. (Page 13.)

7. The **Compound Relatives** are formed by adding *ever*, *so* and *soever* to the simple relatives. They are *whoever*, *whoso*, *whosoever*, *whichever*, *whichsoever*, *whatever* and *whatsoever*.

Whoever, *whoso* and *whosoever*, are equivalent to *he who*, or *any one who*. *Whichever* and *whichsoever* are equivalent to *any which*. *Whatever* and *whatsoever* are equivalent to *any thing which*.

Examples.— *Whoever* studies will learn;" *i. e.*, "*Any one who* studies will learn." "*Whichever* way you may take will lead to the city;" *i. e.*, "*Any way which* you may take," etc. "I am pleased with *whatever* you may do;" *i. e.*, "I am pleased with *any thing which* you may do."

The **Compound Relatives** are indeclinable. They retain the same form in all the cases in which they are used.

A compound relative pronoun is generally equivalent to two words — a **relative** and its **antecedent**. In the analysis the two words should be used instead of the compound relative.

Possessive Pronouns are words used to represent both the possessor and the thing possessed.

Examples.— Mine, thine, his, hers, ours, yours.

To denote emphatic distinction, *my own* is used for *mine*, *his own* for *his*, *thy own* for *thine*, *our own* for *ours*, *your own* for *yours*, *their own* for *theirs*.

Examples.— Each pupil should have *his own* pencil; This house is *my own*; Stand, the ground is *your own*.

Two sets of models are given for parsing Possessive Pronouns. Both are sanctioned by good authorities. (Page 84).

The **Properties** of a pronoun are *Gender*, *Person*, *Number*, and *Case*.

Remark.— A pronoun must agree with its antecedent in *gender*, *person* and *number*, but its *case* depends upon the structure of the sentence.

Punctuation.— *The members of a compound sentence, if long, or if their parts are set off by commas, should be separated by semicolons, even when joined by connectives.*

Analyze the following sentence, using this as a model:

“Whoever asks a favor of you should be treated with kindness.”

(He R.1. should be R.13. T · treated R.23.)	
(Whoever)	with kindness R.7.)
(who asks 13. favor 6.)	
	of you R.7.)

In this sentence, **whoever** is equivalent to **he who**. **He** is the subject of the principal sentence; **should be** is the copula; **treated** is the predicate. **He** is modified by the subordinate sentence or clause of which **who** is the subject; **asks** is the predicate; **favor** is the object.

LETTER OF INTRODUCTION.

Dear Friend,—

It gives me pleasure to introduce to you my much esteemed friend, Mr. W. P. Johnson. Any attentions that you may show him will be gratefully acknowledged and cheerfully reciprocated by

Yours truly,

Mr. W. H. Bethune,

M. G. Wilson.

Cincinnati, Ohio.

REMARKS.—It is not customary to seal a letter of Introduction.

1. I shall give you whatever you ask. 2. Call to your assistance whomever you want. 3. Whoso breaketh the law is not wise. 4. Whatsoever ye shall ask in my name that will I give unto you. 5. We may ask what (that which) we want.

ORDER OF PARSING THE PRONOUN.

Pron.	Class.	Gender.	Person.	Number.	R	Case.	R
	Personal	Masculine	First	Singular		Nominat.	
	Relative	Feminine	Second	Plural	9	Possessive	3
	Interrogative	Common	Third			Objective	
	Possessive	Neuter					

RULE 9.—Pronouns must agree with their antecedents in person, gender and number,

MODELS FOR PARSING.

1. *He himself* is responsible for the accident.
2. Anna, the prize is *yours*.
3. Every person should love *his* friends.
4. *It* is extremely cold to-day.

Pronoun.	Class.	Gender.	Person.	Number.	R	Case.	R
"He,"	pers.,	masc.,	third,	sing.,	9	nom.	1
"Himself,"	pers. comp.,	masc.,	third,	sing.,	9	nom.	4
"Yours,"	poss.,	fem.,	second,	sing.,	9	nom.	2
"His,"	pers.,	masc.,	third,	sing.,	9	poss.	3
"It,"	pers.,	neut.,	third,	sing.,	9	nom.	1

"Whoever asks a favor of you should be treated with kindness."

Whoever. is a *pronoun; relative; compound*; it is equivalent to *he who*.

He...... is a *pronoun; personal; masculine; third; singular* (to agree with its antecedent), Rule 9; (subject of the verb, **should be**, therefore) *nominative*, R. 1.

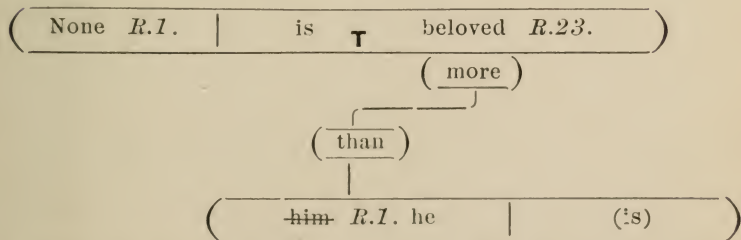
Who.....is a pronoun; relative; simple; masculine; third; singular, Rule 9; nominative, Rule 1.

Cases.	Nominative.	{ Subject, R. 1.
		{ Predicate, R. 2.
		{ Independent, R. 5.
	Possessive.	{ Modifies a Noun, R. 3.
		{ Modifies a Participle, R. 8.
	Objective.	{ Object of a Transitive Verb, R. 6.
		{ Object of a Preposition, R. 7.
		{ Subject of an Infinitive, R. 16.

RULE 1.—A noun or pronoun, used as the subject of a sentence, is in the nominative case.

Correct the following sentences, using this as a model:

“None of his companions is more beloved than him.”



Him is a violation of Rule 1; it should have the nominative form, **he**. (Page 13.)

1. Who did he want? 2. Her and her brother are both older than me. 3. I have never seen larger apples than them. 4. Whom besides Hilda do you suppose received a prize? 5. Them that seek wisdom, shall find it. 6. I am as tall as she, but he is taller than her. 7. Him that we accuse is now present. 8. No other student is more industrious

than her. 9. Who swept the room? — Us girls. 10. Who wants a book? — Me.

2. I know not whom else are invited. 2. What were you and him talking about? 3. Whom do you suppose has come to see us? 4. You did fully as well as me. 5. We grieve not as them that have no hope. 6. Whom shall I say called? 7. Thrice is he armed who hath his quarrel just: and him but naked, though locked up in steel, whose conscience with injustice is corrupted. 8. I do not think such persons as him competent to judge.

Direction.— After having parsed all the pronouns in the foregoing exercises review the work on pages thirty and eighty-five. A few poetic selections from the readers may also be used.

PROMISSORY NOTE.

$\$192\frac{50}{100}$ *Cleveland, O., May, 20, 1891.*

On or before April 20, 1892, for value received, I promise to pay Richard Rowe, or bearer, One Hundred Ninety-two and $\frac{50}{100}$ Dollars.

William B. Head.

JOINT NOTE.

$\$192\frac{50}{100}$ *Pittsburg, Pa., Sept. 4, 1891.*

On demand, for value received, we jointly and severally promise to pay Walter Wheeler, or order, One Hundred Ninety-two and $\frac{50}{100}$ Dollars, with interest at 7 per cent.

Howard, Taylor & Co.

RULE 6. The object of a transitive verb is in the objective case (and should have the objective form).

The *subject — verb — object* — is the natural order of arrangement, but in poetic composition, and often for the sake of rhetorical effect the object is placed first.

Examples. — *You* I can destroy; *Myself* I can save; Lands and houses have I none.

The interrogative, or relative pronoun, should be placed at the head of its clause. (Pages 17, 22, 82.)

Examples. — Whom did you see? I am he whom you betrayed.

The object of a transitive verb may be a noun, a pronoun, a phrase or a clause. (Pages 49, 53, 57.)

Examples. — Cæsar conquered *Gaul*; His ambition conquered *him*; The natives tried to destroy us. I thought that *we should never see you again*.

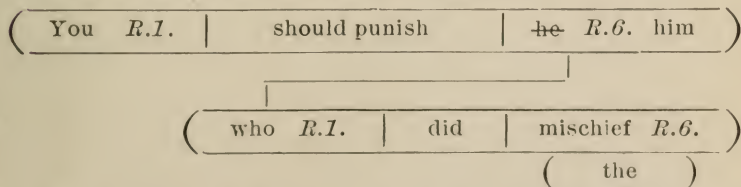
A transitive verb may have several objects connected by conjunctions.

Examples. — The company owns houses, stores, mills, factories, steam-boats, railroads and whole forests of pine timber; He sells watches and clocks and household furniture.

Punctuation. — *Words of like construction should be separated by commas when and is omitted.*

Analyze and correct the following sentences:

“He who did the mischief you should punish.”



He is a violation of Rule 6; it should have the objective form, *him*. (Page 17.)

1. Who shall I call to your assistance? 2. We seldom know who, but some one frequently removes our books. 3. George and Charles and I saw he and his brother at the table. 4. Me and Henry

met she and his cousin. 5. Him and you should be at school to-day. 6. I and him and you also have been summoned to appear.

Punctuation.— *Nouns and pronouns in the nominative absolute case by pleonasm or direct address, should be separated from the rest of the sentence by commas.*

THE ADJECTIVE.

1. An **Adjective** is a word that describes or points out a noun.

Adjectives may be divided into two general classes: *Descriptive* and *Definitive*. (Page 10.)

2. A **Descriptive Adjective** describes a noun by denoting some quality belonging to it.

Remark.— Nouns are frequently used as adjectives and adjectives as nouns. (Page 24.)

When a descriptive adjective represents a noun understood the article must be prefixed.

Examples.— *The great* are not always good; *The wise* are generally good.

3. Adjectives derived from verbs are called *Participial Adjectives*.

Examples.— We found a *flowing* spring in the forest; Henry came across the *plowed* field.

An adjective is frequently modified by a word joined to it by hyphen, thus forming a *Compound Adjective*.

Examples.— He has a *high-sounding* title; It is an *ill-kept* house.

4. A **Proper Adjective** is an adjective derived from a proper noun.

Examples.— The *French* treaty; The *Irish* cause; They import *Spanish* wines and *Arabian* coffee; Those are *American* goods.

Capitals.— *Begin with capitals all adjectives formed from proper nouns.*

5. A **Definitive Adjective** defines or points out a noun without describing it.

Definitive Adjectives may be divided into three classes: *Articles*, *Pronominal Adjectives* and *Numeral Adjectives*.

6. The **Definite Article**, "The," is so named because it definitely points out an object.

Examples. — *The* lamp is on *the* table; *The* boy went into *the* garden.

7. The **Indefinite Article**, "A" or "An," is so named because it defines or points out an object in an indefinite or general manner.

Examples. — *A* lamp is on *a* table; *A* boy went into *a* garden.

Rule. — **A** should be used before words beginning with a *consonant* sound; **An**, before words beginning with *vowel* sound.

Examples. — *An* orange, *a* rock, *an* hour — *h* is silent; *a* unit — *unit* begins with the consonant sound of *y*; such *a* one — one begins with the consonant sound of *w*.

8. A **Pronominal Adjective** is an adjective that performs the office of certain pronouns; that is, it may be used with a noun, or it may represent the noun.

Pronominal Adjectives may be divided into three classes: *Demonstratives*, *Distributives* and *Indefinites*.

9. **Demonstrative Adjectives** point out objects definitely.

Examples. — *This*, *that*, *these*, *those*, *former*, *latter*, *both*, *same*, *yon*, *yonder*.

This (plural **these**) points out an object as near in place or time. **That** (plural **those**) points out an object as not near, or not so near as some other object. (Page 34.)

Examples. — *This* desk is mine; *That* desk over there is yours. *These* books are mine; *those* books in the office are yours. *Those* peaches on the tree are larger than *these* in your basket.

Former and **Latter** are used to designate which of two objects previously mentioned is referred to.

Examples.— You spoke of Perroni and Dodson: the *former* an Italian and the *latter* a Canadian.

Both implies *the one and the other*; **Same** denotes an identical object or one of the like kind.

Examples.— *Both* houses are built of the *same* stone. George and Henry were *both* at school on that *same* day.

10. **Distributive Adjectives** represent objects as taken separately.

Examples.— **Each** of us will give a little; **Every** one of you should aid us; *Either* this or that will do; *Neither* one of the two is satisfactory.

Each may be applied to *one* of *any number* of objects; **Either** should be applied to *one* of *two* objects only; **Neither** means *not either* of two.

Examples.— *Each* of the pupils in this class; *Either* of the two boys; *Each* of you all and *either* of you two; Which of the two will you take? one? both? or *neither*?

11. The **Indefinite Pronominal Adjectives** refer to objects in a general way, without pointing out any one in particular.

Examples.— *All, any, another, certain, divers, enough, few, little, many, much, no, none, one, own, other, several, some, sundry.*

All defines objects as *taken together*. **Any** denotes *a single one* of many.

Examples.— *All* of the men had gone to the field; Have you *any* horses to sell?

Certain denotes *one* or *some*. **Divers** means *unlike, numerous, various*. **Another, or other** means *not the same*. **Enough** denotes a *sufficiency*.

Examples.— There was a *certain* young man in the assembly; *Divers* miracles; We took *another* road; He gave them to *other* people; Indeed, we have heard *enough*.

Few denotes a *small number*. **Little** means small in *quantity, amount* or *duration*. **Many** denotes a *large number*. **Much** denotes a *large quantity*.

Examples. — They have but *few* friends; The soldiers found but *little* rest that night; He has *many* friends and *much* money.

No means *not any*. **None** means *not one*. **Several** indicates any *small number more than two*. **Some** denotes *an intermediate number or quantity*.

Examples. — *No* trace of life can be found in the rocks of that ancient period; *None* remained after sunset; *Several* people stood looking on; *Some* were excited, others calm.

12. Numeral Adjectives are those which give expression to number and order definitely.

Cardinal Numerals simply express the number of objects.

Examples. — *One, six, thirty, nineteen, five hundred, a thousand.*

Ordinal Numerals indicate the position of an object in a series.

Examples. — *Fourth, tenth, fiftieth, thirteenth, the thousandth.*

Multiplicative Numerals express how many fold.

Examples. — *Twofold, fourfold, tenfold and one hundredfold.*

The adjective phrases, *such a (an)*, *many a (an)*, *only a (an)*, *but a (an)*, and *not a (an)*, define singular nouns only. Each such phrase should be treated in analysis as a single word. (Page 19.)

Each other and *one another* are sometimes called **reciprocals**, because they are reciprocally related.

Examples. — We help *one another*; they naturally assist *each other*.

Remark. — The phrases, *each other* and *one another* may in each case be treated as a single word.

13. Adjectives which vary in form to denote number, should agree in that property with the nouns they limit. (Page 34.)

Examples. — This sort, that sort, this kind, that kind; not *these* sort, those sort, etc., which are incorrect.

14. Comparison is a change in the form of an adjective to express different degrees of quality or quantity.

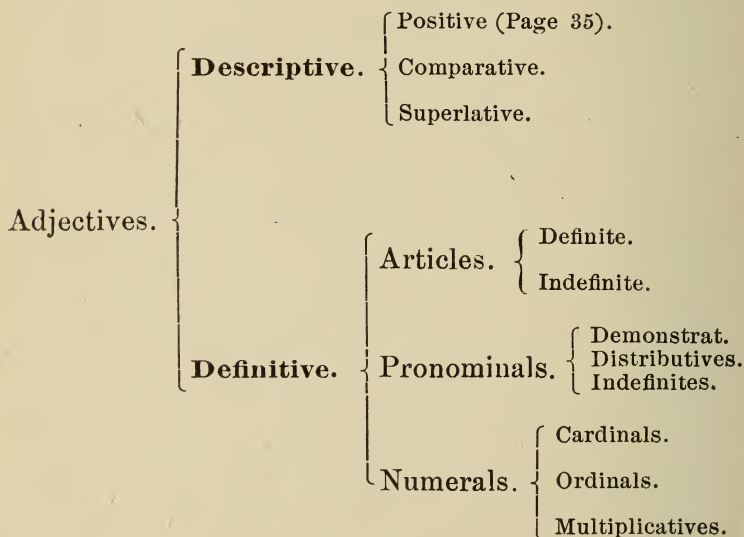
Examples. — *Hard, harder, hardest; good, better, best; soft, softer, softest; beautiful, more beautiful, most beautiful.*

15. There are three **Degrees of Comparison**; the *Positive*, the *Comparative*, the *Superlative*.

The **Positive** degree ascribes to an object the simple quality; as, "He is a *wise* man."

The **Comparative** degree ascribes to one of two objects a higher or lower degree of the quality than that expressed by the positive; as, "He is a *wiser* man."

The **Superlative** degree ascribes the highest or lowest degree of the quality to one of more than two objects; as, "He is the *wisest* of all the men."



Adjectives denoting qualities which cannot exist in different degrees can not, with propriety, be compared; they are, however, sometimes used in the comparative and superlative degrees.

Examples. — *Dead, empty, right, level, square, straight, perpendicular, equal, naked, honest, sincere, hollow.*

Some words denote a high degree of the quality without implying comparison.

Examples. — *Exceedingly, altogether, far, by far, vastly, much, very, a most, a little, too, very, slightly, greatly.*

16. The **Comparative** of adjectives of *one* syllable is commonly formed by adding *er* to the positive, and the **Superlative** by adding *est*.

Examples. — *Great, greater, greatest; high, higher, highest.*

17. Adjectives of **more than one** syllable are generally compared by means of the adverbs *more* and *most*.

Examples. — *Honorable, more honorable, most honorable; worthy, more worthy, most worthy.*

Most adjectives of two syllables ending in *y* or *le*, after a consonant, form their comparative and superlative degrees like monosyllables.

Examples. — *Gentle, gentler, gentlest; holy, holier, holiest.*

Some adjectives follow no general rule in the formation of their comparative and superlative degrees.

Examples. — *Handsome, handsomer, handsomest; narrow, narrower, narrowest.*

18. The degrees of diminution are expressed by the adverbs *less* and *least*.

Examples. — *Noble, less noble, least noble; wise, less wise, least wise.*

Gentlemen,—

I regret that it is not in my power to settle my account with you as usual on the first of the year. The general business depression in this vicinity has made it very difficult for me to collect, and consequently I am much embarrassed. I think, however, that I can safely promise you half, if not the whole sum, within a month, if you will give me that time to press my own claims.

Yours very respectfully,

W. H. WILCOX.

The following are some of the adjectives that are compared irregularly:

POSITIVE.	COMPARATIVE.	SUPERLATIVE.
Good,	better,	best.
Bad, ill, evil,	worse,	worst.
Little,	less,	least.
Much, many,	more,	most.
Near,	nearer,	nearest.
Old,	older or elder,	oldest or eldest.
Late,	later or latter,	latest or last.
Nigh,	nigher (near),	nighest, next.

Two or more adjectives modifying the same word may be compared by prefixing *more* and *most* to the first.

Examples. — *Most potent, grave and reverend gentlemen; The more nice and elegant parts.*

Punctuation. — *Adjective, participial, appositive, and absolute phrases, should be separated from the context by commas.*

EXERCISES.

Correct the sentences in the following series of paragraphs and assign the reason for the correction:

1. Ordinal numeral adjectives should generally be placed before cardinals.

1. Memorize the four first rules. 2. Sing the three first verses. 3. Are there three *first verses*? 4. You may have the two first trees in the row. 5. My uncle built the five first houses on this street.

2. Double comparatives and double superlatives should be avoided.

1. More sharper than a serpent's tooth is vile ingratitude. 2. This was the most unkindest cut of all. 3. George seems more cheerfuller to-day. 4. This is far more preferable than that. 5. Worsen evils than war can hardly be imagined.

3. **The** is used to denote a *particular* one or to distinguish one class from another. **A** denotes *one*, and that not a particular one.

1. The subject of his conversation was a steam engine. 2. A carriage which you saw belongs to Henry. 3. The dime is the tenth part of the dollar. 4. A locomotive is a modern invention. 5. The owl is the bird of prey. 6. A lion is the king of beasts.

4. **A** should not be used before vowel sounds. **An** should not be used before consonant sounds.

1. She is an heroine. 2. We are a united people. 3. Daniel is an humorous boy. 4. That is now established as a historical fact. (*An* should be used before *h* when the following syllable is accented.)

5. The article should be omitted before a word used as a title, or as a mere name.

1. What kind of a man is he? 2. They gave him the title of a duke. 3. A rascal at one time meant a servant. 4. He felt a sort of a misgiving about it. 5. He is a better druggist than a musician.

6. Adverbs should never be used as adjectives.

1. Things look more favorably since your return. 2. I understand that he arrived safely. 3. The relative should be placed as nearly as possible to its antecedent. 4. Brother felt badly this morning. 5. The mountains look beautifully in spring. 6. This peach tastes sweetly.

7. Care should be used in selecting such adjectives as express the exact meaning intended.

1. There are less horses on the market now than formerly. 2. There were not fewer than ten tons of salt on the bridge when it went down. 3. Every member are expected to contribute liberally. 4. I will sell either of the four boats for ten dollars. 5. Neither of my three brothers went to college. 6. He paid all of the laborers two dollars a day. 7. None of the two horses pleases me. 8. They worship both the sun, moon, and stars.

THE VERB.

1. A **Verb** is a word which expresses being, action, or state.

Verbs are divided, with respect to their *form*, into four classes: *regular, irregular, redundant, and defective*.

2. A **Regular Verb** is a verb that forms its past tense and perfect participle by assuming *d* or *ed*.

Examples. — I *love*, I *loved*, I *have loved*.

3. An **Irregular Verb** is a verb that does not form its past tense and the perfect participle by assuming *d* or *ed*.

Examples. — I *see*, I *saw*, I *have seen*; I *break*, I *broke*, I *have broken*; I *draw*, I *drew*, I *have drawn*.

4. A **Redundant Verb** is a verb that forms its past tense or perfect participle in two or more ways, and so as to be both regular and irregular.

Examples. — I *dream*, I *dreamed*, I *have dreamed*; I *dream*, I *dreamt*, I *have dreamt*.

5. A **Defective Verb** is a verb that forms no participles, and is used in but few of the moods and tenses.

Examples. — **Beware**, from *be* and *aware*, used mostly in the imperative mode, as "*Beware the awful avalanche!*" **Ought** used in both present and past tenses; as "*I know I ought to go,*" (now); "*I knew he ought to have gone,*" (then). **Quoth** used for *said*; as "'Not I,' quoth Sancho." **Wit** in the sense of *know*; as, "*To wit,*" *i. e.*, namely.

The *Auxiliaries* are also defective, wanting the perfect participle. They are: *do, be, have, shall, will, may, can, must*.

Remark. — *Do, be, have, and will* are often used as principal verbs; as, "*He does well;*" "*I am;*" "*We have cares and anxieties;*" "*He willed me a portion of his fortune.*"

The *auxiliaries* were originally used as principal verbs, followed by the infinitives of what are now called the principal verbs.

Examples. — He has [to] come; They may [to] go;

6. **Verbs** are divided, as regards their grammatical meaning, into three classes: *transitive*, *intransitive*, and *copulative*.

7. A **Transitive Verb** is a verb that expresses action communicated from a subject to an object. (Page 8.)

Examples. — Henry saw a black fox in the forest.

8. **Voice** is a modification of *transitive verbs* which distinguishes their subject as acting upon an object, or as being acted upon.

The **Active Voice** is that form of the verb in which the subject acts upon an object.

The **Passive Voice** is that form of the verb in which the subject is acted upon.

Examples. — Wolfe *defeated* Montcalm; Montcalm *was defeated* by Wolfe.

9. An **Intransitive Verb** is a verb that expresses being, or state, or action not communicated to an object.

Examples. — The bird sings; The child sleeps.

A verb only in the third person singular and with the pronoun it, is called a **Unipersonal Verb**.

Examples. — It rains; It seems good; Methinks — it thinks me — it appears to me.

The form *methinks* is erroneously considered an affectation for *I think*. On the contrary, it is a remnant of a whole class of unipersonal verbs employed in older stages of the language.

10. A **Copulative Verb** is one which is used to join a predicate to a subject and to make an assertion.

Examples. — Henry is confident of success; Henry was appointed; Henry seems determined. (Page 43.)

THE PARTICIPLE.

A. **Participle** is a word which is derived from a verb and which partakes of the properties of a verb

and of an adjective or a noun.

Remark.—The Participle is a form of the verb that may be used as a noun or adjective. (Page 62.)

There are three Participles: the *Present*, the *Perfect*, and the *Compound*.

The **Present Participle** denotes the continuance of action, being, or state

Examples.—*Seeing, being seen; loving, being loved.*

The **Perfect Participle** denotes the *completion* of action or event.

Examples.—*Loved, written, appointed, seen, built, known.* (Page 20.)

The **Compound Participle** denotes the *completion* of an action or event at or before the time represented by the principal verb.

Examples.—*Having sold* his horse, he walked home.

The *present participle* always ends in *ing*. The *perfect participle* ends in *d*, *ed*, *t*, *n* or *en*. It is frequently used as an adjective but never as a noun. (Page 62.) The *compound participle* is formed by placing *having* or *having been* before the perfect participle.

ORDER OF PARSING.

1. A Participle, and why?
2. From what verb is it derived?
3. Present, perfect, or compound, and why?
4. How is it used?
5. Rule.

MODELS FOR PARSING.

1. "We heard the owls *screaming* in the wilderness."

Screaming. . is a *participle* derived from the verb "scream:"
present participle, and it modifies **owls**. Rule 12.

2. "The storm *having passed* they resumed their journey."

Having passed . . . is a participle derived from the verb "pass;" *compound participle* and it modifies **storm**. Rule 12.

3. "*Rowing* is delightful."

Rowing. . . . is a *participle* derived from the verb "row:" as a noun it is used as the subject of **is**; *nominative case*. Rule 1.

4. "Their commander *having been killed*, the soldiers fled."

Having been killed is a *participle* derived from the verb "kill:" *compound participle*, and it modifies **commander**. Rule 12.

Direction. — Select parsing exercises on page 62 and the following pages. (Page 20.)

MODE.

1. **Mood** is the manner in which the act or state is expressed with reference to its subject,

2. There are five modes: the *Indicative*, *Subjunctive*, *Potential*, *Imperative*, and *Infinite*.

3. The **Indicative Mood** denotes what is *real*. A verb in the *indicative mood* expresses an actual occurrence or asks a question.

Example. — Alexander the Great conquered the world; Did Alexander conquer the world? (Page 90.)

The indicative mode may be used in exclamatory sentences; also, in subordinate sentences to denote what is actual, or what is assumed as actual.

Example. — I understand that you *have returned* to the country; The rascal *has destroyed* my work.

A doubt, condition, or inference, assumed as a fact must also be in the indicative mood.

Examples. — If I *was deceived* I did not know it; If I *am deceived*, I am ruined; This will cause you trouble, when he returns.

4. **The Subjunctive Mode**, which is generally found in subordinate or modifying sentences, is used to express a *condition*, a *doubt*, a *wish*, a *motive*, a *supposition*, or a *possibility*.

Examples. — If this *be* true, he must *go* at once; I shall leave if he *remain*; I wish that he *were* you. (Page 70.)

Explanation. — The subjunctive mode is so named because it is used in subjoined or modifying clauses.

The subordinate conjunctions *if*, *though*, *list*, *except*, *unless*, *until*, *that*, and some others are used in joining the modifying clause to the word modified in the principal sentence and are called the **signs** of the subjunctive.

The **sign** is frequently omitted, in which case the auxiliary or copula precedes the subject.

Examples. — *Were* I he; i. e. If I *were* he; *Had* I time I would aid you, i. e. If I *had* time I would aid you.

Remark. — In subjunctive clauses the subjunctive form of the verb should be used when it is intended to express doubt or denial; the indicative mode when the thing supposed is a fact or is assumed to be a fact.

Subjunctive. — If he *go*, I shall remain (doubt); If he *were* honest, he would pay you (denial); *Had* he *been* there, I should have seen him (denial).

Indicative. — If he *goes*, I shall remain; If he *was* present, he did his duty (neither doubt nor denial implied.)

The subjunctive and the plural form of verbs are identical in all except the verb *to be*, hence the rule: (Page 71.)

The **Potential Mode** expresses *possibility*, *liberty*, *necessity*, *duty* or *liability*.

Examples. — He *can* write; You *must* go; George *should* be more careful; They may now retire. (Page 101.)

The potential mode, like the indicative, is used in interrogative and exclamatory sentences; also, in subordinate sentences to represent what is assumed as actual.

Examples. — Can you accompany me? We know that we *may be* disappointed; He says that I may study history. (Page 90.)

The **Auxiliaries** *may, can, must, might, could, would,* and *should* are called the **signs** of the potential mode.

The *auxiliary, can* or *could* implies ability or power *within* one's self. *May* or *might* implies an agency that may be *without* or *beyond* one's self; hence, *permission, probability, or possibility.*

Examples. — I *can* read; we *could* do it at one time; he may go now; O, that he might return.

The *auxiliary must* denotes obligation or necessity. **Should** indicates that the action is not dependent upon the will of the actor but upon that of another; hence, *obligation or duty.* (Page 19.)

Examples. — You *must* obey the rules; he *should* love, honor and obey his parents; I must remain; it is necessary.

The **Imperative Mood** expresses *command, entreaty, desire, request, or exhortation:*

Examples. — “*Blow, blow, thou winter wind!*” “*Give* us this day our daily bread;” “*Do come* to see us;” “*Arise, go forth, and conquer* as of old.”

Explanation. — The imperative mode indicates a command when a superior speaks to an inferior; an exhortation, when an equal speaks to an equal; a prayer or supplication, when an inferior addresses a superior.

The *imperative mode* may usually be *known* by the omission of the subject.

Examples. — *Come* one, *come* all, *i. e.*, One of you *come*, all of you *come*; *Let* Edna *come, i. e.*, *Permit*, thou Edna to *come.* *Sing* to the Lord, *i. e.*, *Let* us *sing* to the Lord. *Ruin seize* thee, ruthless king. *Proceed* we therefore to our subject.

The imperative mode is often used to express a *wish, a precaution, a grant or a demand.*

Examples. — *Give* me a book; *Watch* him, he is treacherous; *Let* it be

lawful, that law do no wrong; *Let* it be granted; *Look*, that he hide no weapon.

The **Infinite Mode** is that form of the verb which is used as a noun, adjective, or adverb.

There are two infinitives; the *present* and the *perfect*.

Remark. — Transitive verbs have both in each voice; thus making *four* forms in all. (Page 52.)

The **Present Infinitive** denotes the act or state as present or future in regard to the word on which the infinite depends.

Examples. — He *seems to enjoy life*; *To love* is *to obey*; "Man never is, but always *to be* blest." — *Pope*.

The present infinitive consists of *to*, combined with the simplest form of the verb; or of *to be*, with a simple participle.

The **Perfect Infinitive** represents the act or state as completed at the time referred to.

Examples. — They seem *to have come* through the rain; He ought *to have gone* before dark. (Page 59.)

The perfect infinitive consists of *to have*, or *have been*, combined with a simple participle.

Examples. — To have written, to have been writing, to have been written.

The perfect infinitive is so combined with the verb *ought*, and sometimes with the verb *have* or *was*, that the whole expression is equivalent in time to the past perfect potential; as, "*I ought to have gone*." And in the idiom, "*I had like to have fallen overboard*." — *Swift*. And, probably, "*I was to have gone*," implying, "*I did not go*."

TENSE.

1. **Tense** is that property of verbs which shows the distinction of time.

There are three divisions of time: *Past*, *Present* and *Future*. Each division has two tenses: an *absolute* and a *relative*.

The **Absolute Tenses** are the *Present*, the *Past* and the *Future*. They denote indefinite or incomplete action.

The **Relative Tenses** are the *Present Perfect*, the *Past Perfect*, and the *Future Perfect*. They denote completed action.

2. The **Present Tense** represents an action or event in present time.

Examples. — The wind *is blowing* a fearful blast; The bird *sings*.

The present tense is used in expressing a general truth, or what is habitual.

Examples. — Time and tide *wait* for no man; The coach *arrives* with the mail at nine a. m. Perseverance conquers all things.

The *historical* present is the present used for the past, to describe more vividly what took place in past time.

Examples. — "Ulysses *walks*, not knowing where he was." — Pope. "The Turk *advances* under a storm of iron hail." "Mathew *traces* the descent of Joseph; Luke *traces* that of Mary."

3. The **Present Perfect Tense** represents an action or event as past, but connected with present time.

Example. — George *has finished* his work.

Have, the sign of the present perfect tense, originally denoted *possession*. As an auxiliary, it denotes *completion*.

The present perfect potential is present or future in regard to the mood, and presents the act or state as relatively past.

Examples. — He *has fallen* from the bridge; The hunter *has killed* the wolf.

4. The **Past Tense** expresses what took place in time wholly past.

Examples. — The bird *was flying*. The boys *read* and the girls *wrote*.

The *past potential* denotes a duty or obligation, without reference to time.

Example. — Children *should obey* their parents.

The *past indicative*, like the *present*, denotes what was habitual.

Example. — They *walked* home every day.

5. The **Past Perfect Tense** represents an action or event as completed in time fully past.

Example. — Your friends *had departed* before we arrived.

The past tense is generally used instead of the past perfect, to denote the completion of an act at or before a certain past time mentioned.

Example. — Your friends *left* before midnight.

6. The **Future Tense** represents an action or event in future time.

Examples. — “The lion *shall eat* straw like the ox;” “I *shall see* you soon.”

Shall and **will** are the *signs* of the future tense. *Shall*, in the first person, and *will*, in the second and third persons, are generally employed to denote futurity.

Examples. — We *shall call* to see you on Saturday; You *will be* pleased to hear the news.

Shall expresses the action or event as a duty commanded; **Will**, as something determined upon.

Examples. — “Thou *shalt not steal*;” I *will not do* it, come what may.

7. The **Future Perfect Tense** represents an action as completed at or before a certain future time.

Examples. — I *shall have finished* my work at noon to-day; We *shall have departed* before he arrives.

FORMS OF THE VERB.

1. **Verbs** have five forms, which may be considered subdivisions of the tenses; the *Common*, the *Emphatic*, the *Progressive*, the *Passive*, and the *Ancient*, or *Solemn Style*.

(1) **Common Form.** — I *write*; I *shall write*.

(2) **Emphatic Form.** — They *do* write; He declared that he *did* not do it.

(3) **Progressive Form.** — I *am writing*; They *had been* rambling.

(4) **Passive Form.** — The letter *was written*; He *was injured*.

(5) **Ancient Form.** — “So *shalt* thou *rest*,” “Thou art he whom they named to me;” “Thou *art* a pretty fellow.”

Remark. — The **Ancient Form**, or *Solemn Style*, is used in the Bible, in poetry, and sometimes in burlesque. It is never used in modern prose.

PERSON AND NUMBER.

1. The **Person** and **Number** of verbs are their modifications to mark their agreement with their subjects.

Remark. — A verb must agree with its subject in person and number. (Page 32.)

A subject in the *second person singular*, generally requires the verb, or its auxiliary, to end in *t*, *st* or *est*.

Examples. — “Thou *canst* not injure me;” “Thou *shalt* not steal;” “Thou *lovedst* me once.” (Page 91.)

A subject in the *third person singular*, generally requires the verb, or its auxiliary, to end in *s*, *es* or *eth*.

Examples. — “God *loveth* his children;” “The horse *runs*,” “The boy *goes* to school.” (Page 93.)

CONJUGATION.

1. The **Conjugation** of a verb is the proper combination and arrangement of its parts.

2. The **Principal Parts** of a verb are: the *present indicative*, the *past indicative*, and the *perfect participle*.

3. **Synopsis** of a verb is only an outline of it, which shows its parts in a single person and number, through the moods and tenses.

CONJUGATION OF THE VERB "TO BE.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Present Tense.

Be, or am.

Past Tense.

Was.

Perfect Participle.

Been.

SYNOPSIS.

INDICATIVE MODE.

Present, . . . I am.*Past Perfect*, . I had been.*Present Perfect*, I have been.*Future*, . . . I shall be.*Past*, ... I was.*Future Perfect*, I shall have been.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

Present, . . . If I be.*Past*, . . . If I were.*Past Perfect*, . . If I had been.

POTENTIAL MODE.

Present, . . . I may, can, or must be.*Present Perfect*, I may, can or must have been.*Past*, ... I might, could, would, or should be.*Past Perfect*, . I might, could, would, or should have been.

IMPERATIVE MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.

Be, or do thou be;

Be, or do ye or you be.

INFINITIVE MODE.

Present, To be.

Present Perfect, To have been.

PARTICIPLES.

Present, Being.

Perfect, Been.

Compound, Having been.

CONJUGATION OF THE VERB "TO LOVE."

ACTIVE VOICE.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Present Tense.
Love.

Past Tense.
Loved.

Perfect Participle.
Loved.

SYNOPSIS.

INDICATIVE MODE.

Present, . . . I love.

Past Perfect, . I had loved.

Present Perfect, I have loved.

Future, . . . I shall love.

Past, ... I loved.

Future Perfect, I shall have loved.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

Present, . . . If I love.

Past, ... If I loved.

Past Perfect, . . . If I had loved.

POTENTIAL MODE.

Present, . . . I may, can, or must love.

Present Perfect, I may, can, or must have loved.

Past, ... I might, could, would, or should love.

Past Perfect, . I might, could, would, or should have loved.

IMPERATIVE MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.

2. Love, or do thou love; 2. Love, or do ye or you love.

INFINITE MODE.

Present, To love. *Present Perfect*, To have loved.

PARTICIPLES.

Present, Loving. *Perfect*, Loved. *Compound*, Having loved.

PASSIVE VOICE.

The **Passive Voice** is formed by prefixing, as an auxiliary, the various forms of the verb *to be*, to the *perfect participle* of a transitive verb.

SYNOPSIS.

INDICATIVE MODE.

Present, ... I am loved.
Present Perfect, ... I have been loved.
Past, ... I was loved.
Past Perfect, ... I had been loved.
Future, ... I shall be loved.
Future Perfect, ... I shall have been loved.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

Present, . . . If I be loved. *Past*, . . . If I were loved.
Past Perfect, ... If I had been loved.

POTENTIAL MODE.

Present, ... I may be loved.
Present Perfect, ... I may have been loved.
Past, ... I might be loved.
Past Perfect, ... I might have been loved.

REGULAR CONJUGATION.

PASSIVE VOICE.

INDICATIVE MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.

Singular.

1. I am loved,
2. Thou art loved,
3. He is loved;

Plural.

1. We are loved,
2. You are loved,
3. They are loved.

PRESENT PERFECT TENSE.

1. I have been loved,
2. Thou hast been loved,
3. He has been loved;

1. We have been loved,
2. You have been loved,
3. They have been loved.

PAST TENSE.

1. I was loved,
2. Thou wast loved,
3. He was loved;

1. We were loved,
2. You were loved,
3. They were loved.

PAST PERFECT TENSE.

1. I had been loved,
2. Thou hadst been loved,
3. He had been loved;

1. We had been loved,
2. You had been loved,
3. They had been loved.

FUTURE TENSE.

1. I shall be loved,
2. Thou wilt be loved,
3. He will be loved;

1. We shall be loved,
2. You will be loved,
3. They will be loved.

FUTURE PERFECT TENSE.

1. I shall have been loved,
2. Thou wilt have been loved,
3. He will have been loved;

1. We shall have been loved,
2. You will have been loved,
3. They will have been loved.

The subjunctive mood is usually introduced by the conjunctions *if, though, that, unless, lest, except.*

PASSIVE VOICE.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.

- | | |
|----------------------|----------------------|
| 1. If I be loved, | 1. If we be loved, |
| 2. If thou be loved, | 2. If you be loved, |
| 3. If he be loved; | 3. If they be loved. |

PAST TENSE.

Singular.

Plural.

- | | | |
|------------------------|---------------------|------------------------|
| 1. If I were loved, | 1. Were I loved, | 1. If we were loved, |
| 2. If thou wert loved, | 2. Wert thou loved, | 2. If you were loved. |
| 3. If he were loved; | 3. Were he loved; | 3. If they were loved. |

PASSIVE VOICE.

POTENTIAL MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.

- | | |
|-------------------------|-----------------------|
| 1. I may be loved, | 1. We may be loved, |
| 2. Thou mayst be loved, | 2. You may be loved, |
| 3. He may be loved; | 3. They may be loved. |

PRESENT PERFECT TENSE.

- | | |
|--------------------------------|------------------------------|
| 1. I may have been loved, | 1. We may have been loved, |
| 2. Thou mayst have been loved, | 2. You may have been loved, |
| 3. He may have been loved; | 3. They may have been loved. |

PAST TENSE.

- | | |
|---------------------------|-------------------------|
| 1. I might be loved, | 1. We might be loved, |
| 2. Thou mightst be loved, | 2. You might be loved, |
| 3. He might be loved; | 3. They might be loved. |

PAST PERFECT TENSE.

- | | |
|----------------------------------|--------------------------------|
| 1. I might have been loved, | 1. We might have been loved, |
| 2. Thou mightst have been loved, | 2. You might have been loved, |
| 3. He might have been loved; | 3. They might have been loved. |

IMPERATIVE MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.

- | | |
|--------------------------------|-------------------------------|
| 2. Be loved, or be thou loved; | 2. Be loved, or be you loved. |
|--------------------------------|-------------------------------|

INFINITIVE MODE.

Present, To be loved. *Present Perfect*, To have been loved.

PARTICIPLES.

Present, Being loved. *Perfect*, Loved. *Compound*, Having been loved.

The Progressive, the Emphatic, and the Interrogative are called the *Coördinate Forms of Conjugation*.

SYNOPSIS.

PROGRESSIVE FORM.

INDICATIVE MODE.

Present, ... I am loving.
Present Perfect, . . . I have been loving.
Past, ... I was loving.
Past Perfect, ... I had been loving.
Future, ... I shall be loving.
Future Perfect, ... I shall have been loving.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

Present, . . . If I be loving. *Past*, . . . If I were loving.
Past Perfect, ... If I had been loving.

POTENTIAL MODE.

Present, ... I may be loving.
Present Perfect, . . . I may have been loving.
Past, ... I might be loving.
Past Perfect, ... I might have been loving.

INFINITIVE MODE.

Present, To be loving. *Present Perfect*, To have been loving.

IMPERATIVE MODE.

Present, . . . Be thou loving.

PARTICIPLES.

Present, Loving. *Compound*, Having been loving.

Present, If I do love. *Past*, If I did love.

INTERROGATIVE FORM.

INDICATIVE MODE.

Present, ... Love I? Do I love? Am I loving?

Present Perfect, . Have I loved? Have I been loving?

Past, ... Loved I? Did I love? Was I loving?

Past Perfect, . . Had I loved? Had I been loving?

Future, ... Shall I love? Shall I be loving?

Future Perfect . . Shall I have loved? Shall I have been loving?

EXERCISES.

Parse the verbs in the following sentences using the models on page 91:

1. The hunter *killed* a bear. 2. The wind *blows* furiously. 3. The pigeon *has been killed* by the boy. 4. I shall leave if you *remain*. 5. *Do come* to see us. 6. If this *be* true, all will end well. 7. You can write. 8. O, that he *might return*. 9. He *rose to speak*. 10. The man *has fallen* from the bridge. 11. If I *had started* sooner, I should have overtaken you. 12. We shall arrive at noon.

1. Use the proper tense to express the relation of time implied in the statement.

“They have visited us last week.”

In this sentence a statement concerning an event in *past time* is made, therefore, the *past tense form* of the verb should be used, and the sentence should be, “They *visited* us last week.”

1. After I wrote the letter I took a walk. 2. Your son was tardy every day this week. 3. I know him more than a year. 4. They were under obligations to have assisted me. 5. George was absent all this afternoon. 6. I shall live here six months next Tuesday.

2. Use the present tense form of the verb in giving expression to general truths or existing facts.

“He proved that the earth *was* round.”

In this sentence it is the intention to give expression to a general truth, therefore, the present tense form of the verb should be used, and the sentence should be, “He proved that the earth *is* round.”

1. Heat will radiate best from a rough surface. 2. I should think it was time for the bell to ring. 3. I have always thought that dew fell. 4. My teacher told me that every star was a sun. 5. He did not know that cheese was made of milk.

3. **Shall** should be used with the *first person*, and **will** with the *second* and *third person*, to denote a future action or event.

Remark.—When it is desired to express **determination** or **necessity** in future time **will** should be used with the *first person* and **shall** with the *second* and *third person*.

“I *shall* go; no one *will* prevent me.”

In this sentence, determination is expressed, therefore the sentence should be, “I *will* go; no one *shall* prevent me.” (Page 104.)

1. Would we have a pleasant time if we should go? 2. If I would earn money, I would save it. 3. We will receive our share next Saturday. 4. I will not be at home to-morrow. 5. I should be sorry if you would be sick.

4. In giving expression to a supposition, use the subjunctive form of the verb — the subjunctive mode — to denote doubt or denial, and the indicative to express a fact or any thing assumed as a fact.

Indicative.—“Though he *drives* me from door, yet I will cling to him.” This is assumed as a fact; *he does drive me*.

Subjunctive.—“Though he *drive* me from his door, yet I will cling to him.” This denotes doubt; *he may drive me*.

1. If it rains, I shall not go. 2. If he promises he will help you. 3. If he was rich he would be generous. 4. If he is not engaged, he will accompany you. 5. If he play, he wins. 6. Unless the miller grinds the wheat, we will have no flour. (Page 70.)

St. Louis, Mo., July 5th, 1888.

R. W. Palmer, Esq.,

Chicago, Ills.

Dear Sir,--

Your favor of the 1st inst. received. I note what you say respecting the Kilgar loss by the recent conflagration. I am surprised that the assured request an additional allowance. We went into the matter very carefully and very thoroughly. The amount allowed was considered very liberal by all concerned. We stand ready to correct any mistakes or errors made, if there be any. Otherwise, I do not see that we can do anything. If, however, Mr. Kilgar is not entirely satisfied with the adjustment, he is at liberty to return our draft, and we will take the matter up de novo.

Very Truly, Yours,

Gaty E. Pallen,

Manager Home Insurance Co.

Rule 13. — A verb must agree with its subject in person and number.

Are and **were** are the only plural forms of the English verb, (to) **be**. Most verbs have but one person form, the third, made by adding *s* or *es*, in the common style. (Page 32.)

In the **solemn style**, the second person singular takes the ending *est*, *st*, or *t*, and in the indicative present, the third person singular adds *eth*.

Examples. — Thou *lovest* me not these wintry days. Thou *hast* no friends. He *hath* no enemies. Thou *art* merciful, indeed. *Wilt* thou aid me?

When the subject is a collective noun, conveying the plurality of idea, the verb should be plural.

Examples. — The cavalry *were* deployed on the plain. The peasantry *wear* coarse cotton cloth. The multitude *were* of one mind.

When the subject is a collective noun and the collection is considered as one whole, the verb should be singular.

Examples. — The *number* of people present *was* not ascertained. The *committee* *favors* our plan. *Does* the *board* of directors give you substantial aid? The *army* *was* destroyed.

When a subject, plural in form, represents a single thing, the verb must be singular.

Examples. — The *news* of his defeat *has* been received; *Optics* *is* his study at present; *Politics* *was* his trade. (Page 77.)

When the subject is a mere word or sign, an infinitive, or a clause, the verb should be in the third person singular.

Examples. — “*Who is there?*” *was* heard from the thicket. *Books* *is* a plural noun. $\div$ *is* the sign of division. *To deceive* *is* wrong.

The pronoun *you*, however, even when singular in meaning, requires a verb and a pronoun of the plural form.

Analyze the following sentences and justify the use of the italicized words:

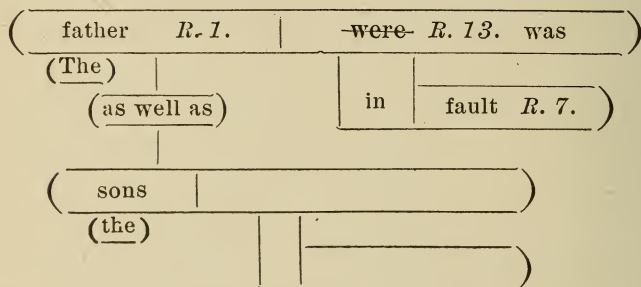
1. Ten cents *is* the price.
2. The wealthy *are* not always the

most happy. 3. The committee *were* unable to agree, and *they* asked to be discharged. 4. The House *has* decided not to allow *its* members the privilege. 5. Five dollars *is* not too much. 6. Twice as much *is* too much. 7. Two hours *is* a long time to wait. 8. To relieve the wretched *was* his pride.

Sometimes two or more words enter into the composition of a connective. In such cases the several words must be taken together, treated as one **conjunction**, and placed in the same circle in the diagram.

Examples.—*As well as, as if, not only, but also, except that, for as much as, but likewise, notwithstanding that.*

“The father, as well as the sons, were in fault.”



Were is a violation of Rule 13; it should have the singular form, *was*. (Page 32.)

As well as is a combination of words used as a conjunction.

RULE 14.—A verb, with two or more subjects in the singular, connected by *and*, must be plural.

When the connected subjects are different names of the same thing, or when they name several things taken as one whole, the verb must be singular.

Examples.—*Oatmeal and milk* is excellent food. My esteemed friend and schoolmate is now in the country.

When the subjects are emphatically distinguished, the verb *agrees* with the *first*, and is understood with the *second*.

Examples. — *Capital*, and *labor* also, *is* required. *Time*, as well as *patience*, *is* needed. Diligent *industry*, and not mean savings, *constitutes* honorable competence.

When one of the subjects is affirmative and the other negative, the verb *agrees* with the *affirmative*.

Examples. — Dissipation, and not ill luck, *ruined* his fortune; Books, and not pleasure, *occupy* his time.

A verb in the imperative mode usually agrees with *thou*, *you*, or *ye*, expressed or understood.

Examples. — *Look* [*ye*] to your hearths, my Lord! *Smooth* [*thou*] thy brow; [*Do thou*] let brighter thoughts be with the virtuous dead.

When several subjects follow the verb, each subject may be emphasized by making the verb agree with that which stands *nearest*.

Examples. — Yours *is* the *responsibility* and the *labor* and the *honor*; Thine *is* the *kingdom* and the *power* and the *glory*.

When two or more singular subjects are emphatically distinguished, or are preceded by *each*, *every* or *no*, the verb should be singular.

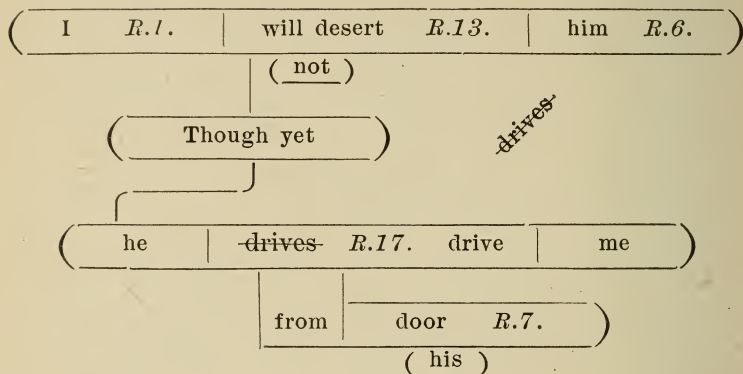
Examples. — All work and no play *makes* Jack a dull boy; The master as well as the servant, *was* to blame; Each minute, hour and day *is* valuable; Every bird and beast *retreats* before the storm.

THEMES FOR COMPOSITION.

- | | |
|------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| 1. Ice Palaces. | 2. An Intercepted Letter. |
| 3. The Rainbow. | 4. A World without Light. |
| 5. Daily Wonders. | 6. What the Moon Saw. |
| 7. Buried Cities. | 8. My Grandfather's Clock. |
| 9. The Pyramids. | 10. How I Earned my Living. |
| 11. Great Discoveries. | 12. The Sandwich Islands. |
| 13. A Day in Venice. | 14. Old and New Cities. |
| 15. The Great West. | 16. Lieut. Nordenskiöld's Voyage. |
| 17. Unwritten Music. | 18. Egyptian Architecture. |

RULE 17. In Subjunctive Clauses the plural form of the verb is generally used even with singular subjects.

“Though he *drives* me from his door, yet will I not desert him.”



Drives is a verb in the subjunctive mode therefore it should have the subjunctive or plural form, *drive*.

This is a sentence; declarative; complex. **I** is the subject of the principal sentence; **will desert** is the predicate; **him** is the object. **Will desert** is modified by the subjunctive clause, **Though he drive me from his door**, of which **he** is the subject; **drive** is the predicate; **me** the object.

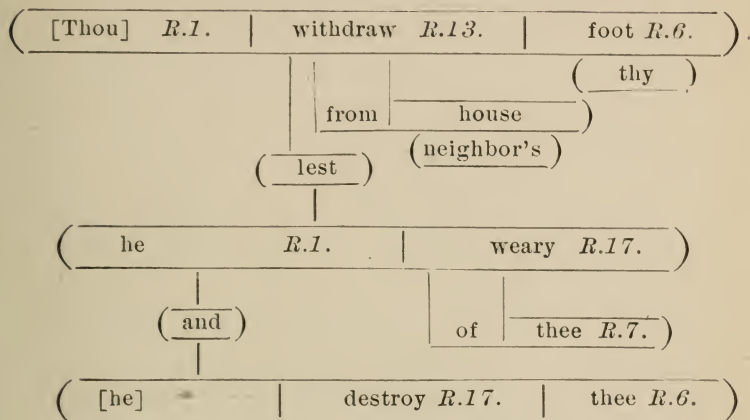
EXERCISES.

To be corrected:

1. If it *rains* to-morrow, I shall not go to Albany. 2. If he *was* here, I should be glad. 3. Though he *slays* me, yet will I trust in him. 4. If thy brother *offends* thee, rebuke him; and if he *repents*, forgive him. 5. Unless he *arrives*, there is danger. 6. I wish that she *was* you. 7. I shall depart to-morrow provided he *remains*. 8. In case he *returns*, they will leave here in the morning. 9. Unless he *grinds* our corn we will have no dinner. 10. The president recommended that the prisoner *should be given* his liberty.

Punctuation.— *The dash should be used where there is a sudden break or stop in a sentence, or a change in its meaning or construction.*

“Withdraw thy foot from thy neighbor’s house, lest he weary of thee and destroy thee.”



This is a sentence; imperative; complex. **Thou** or **you** understood is the subject of the principal sentence; **withdraw** is the predicate; **foot** is the object. **Withdraw** is modified by the two subjunctive clauses, **he weary of thee** and **[he] destroy thee**. (Page 71.)

Lest is a subordinate conjunction connecting the two subordinate clauses with the modified word, **withdraw**, in the principal sentence.

Point out the faults and reconstruct the following sentences, making them clear:

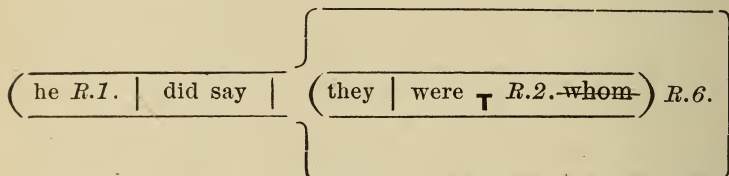
1. Your friend was overjoyed to see him, and he sent for one of his workmen, and told him to consider himself at his service.
2. The clerk told his employer, whatever he did, he could not please him.
3. He told the driver that he would be the death of him if he did not take care what he was about, and mind what he said.
4. My friend, Johnson, used to relate that, when he bought the copy of his “Connection of the Old and New Testament” to the bookseller, he told him it was a dry subject.
5. Winston answered the French minister that if he had sent in a complaint, he would have punished the sailors severely.
6. James’s son, Charles I., before the breath was out of his body was proclaimed king in his stead.

RULE 2. A noun or pronoun used as the predicate of a sentence is in the nominative case.

Explanation. — A noun or pronoun used as the predicate of a sentence means the same person or thing as the subject. The pronoun, *it*, as subject, may represent a noun or pronoun of any person, number or gender, as predicate; as, It was he; It was I; It was you.

Correct the following sentences using this as a model:

“ Whom did he say they were? ”



Whom is a violation of Rule 2; it should have the nominative form *who*. (Page 13.)

1. I do not know whom they are. 2. We did not know it was him. 3. That was me. 4. It could not have been her. 5. It was John and me that you saw. 6. It is not him that she is angry with. 7. Had I been him, I should have done the same. 8. It was me that broke your slate. 9. Let him be whom he may. 10. Whom do they say that I am?

THEMES FOR COMPOSITION.

- | | |
|---------------------------------|---------------------|
| 1. A Desirable Guest. | 2. Our Navy. |
| 3. Growing Old Gracefully. | 4. Discretion. |
| 5. The Magic of Kindness. | 6. The Tariff. |
| 7. The Dollar of our Fathers | 8. Self-Control. |
| 9. Difficulty of being Truthful | 10. Courtesy. |
| 11. Halloween and its Customs. | 12. The Sunny Side. |
| 13. True and False Delicacy. | 14. Peacemakers. |

THE ADVERB.

1. An **Adverb** is a word used to modify the meaning, —

- (1) Of a *verb*. “She sings sweetly.”
- (2) Of an *adjective*. “That is a *very* hard stone.”
- (3) Of another *adverb*. “He writes *exceedingly* well.”
- (4) Of a *phrase*. “He sailed *nearly round the world*.”

Remark. — An adverb may be used to modify a clause; as, *His sons likewise came to the city.* (Page 40.)

*“Even as a miser counts his gold,
Those hours the ancient time-piece told.”*

2. Some idiomatic phrases are commonly used as adverbs, and are therefore called *adverbial phrases*.

The following is a partial list of the *adverbial phrases* most frequently employed in English:

at large	by far	in truth	in like manner	here and there
at once	by turns	of purpose	a truth	of mornings
at best	as yet	in that	from below	up and down
at all	by chance	inasmuch as	one by one	in and out
at length	at times	by and by	in case	now and then
at last	at hand	by no means	from above	ever and anon
in general	in short	at present	in vain	out and out.

3. Some adverbs and adverbial phrases are formed by combining a *preposition* with a *noun* or an *adjective*.

A, standing for the old English **an, on, in**; as *a-year, a-day* = yearly, daily; *a-bed, a-foot, a-loft*.

A, with old possessive forms; as, *a-nights, now-a-days* = old English *now-on-days*.

An, on, o, standing for **an** or **on**, and meaning **of**; as *man-a-war, two-o-clock, Jack-an-apes.*

Be; as, *be-times, be-side.*

Of, replacing the old possessive case; as, *Of-course, of-force, of-truth, of-old, of-late, of-a-day, of-a-truth.*

To; as, *to-day, to-night, to-morrow.*

4. With respect to their meaning and use, adverbs are divided into five classes: Adverbs of *Time, Place, Cause, Manner* and *Degree.*

Direction.—For classes of adverbs and comparison, see page thirty-seven.

Some adverbs are the equivalents of independent sentences and some appear as remnants and representatives of such sentences: *Yes, no, amen, well, why, nay.*

Examples.—“*Yes; there is a remedy.*” “*So, so; and this is the way.*” “*Well, I hardly know what to say.*” “*Why, you must be mistaken.*”

5. Adverbs are short equivalents for phrases or propositions.

Thus = in this manner.

Now = at this time.

In vain = in a vain manner.

There = in that place.

Occasionally = as occasion requires.

Where = in what place.

6. Many of the most common modifying words can be used in the same form either as adjectives or as adverbs.

Examples.—No, well, better, best, very, more, most, hard, long, like, less, least, worse, worst, ill, yonder, fast, late, early.

“He is *no* fool;” *adjective.*

“He is *no* better;” *adverb.*

“Few men, *like* him, fight;” *adj.* “Few men fight *like* him;” *adv.*

7. In poetry and in compound words, the adjective form is allowed to a greater extent than elsewhere.

"The swallow sings *sweet* from her nest in the wall." — *Dimon*.

"Drink *deep*, or taste not the Pierian spring." — *Pope*.

"Though thou wert *firmler* fastened than a rock." — *Milton*.

"By the vendurous banks of a *smooth-gliding* stream." — *Moore*.

Two *negatives* are not employed in modern English to express a *negation*.

Examples. — "He *doesn't* know nothing about it." The expression should be, "He *don't* know anything about it;" or, "He knows nothing about it."

This method of using two negatives in the same sentence is a remnant of old English usage. Until the middle of the seventeenth century an accumulation of negatives was employed in strengthening negation:

"Thou *never* didst them wrong, *nor no* man wrong." — SHAKESPEARE.

"Therefore saith the King Solomon,
Be *not* idle *never more*." — ROBERT OF BRUNNE.

Remark. — An adverb sometimes becomes a noun; as, We have *enough*; I will do it for *once*; By *far* the best.

8. To express manner or describe the act, the adverb should be used; to describe the object, the adjective.

"Things look [are] *favorable* this morning;" *adj.*

"He looks *skillfully* at the moon, through his telescope."

"We arrived *safe*;" *i. e.*, we were *safe* when we arrived.

When the verb *be* or *become* can be joined to the verb, or put in its place, the modifying word is or should be an *adjective*.

"The waves dashed *high*;" *i. e.*, they were *high*, and *dashed*.

"*Soft* blows the breeze;" *i. e.*, *is soft*, and *blows*.

"He spoke *better*;" *adv.* "He seemed *better*, felt *better*;" *adj.*

9. A **Conjunctive Adverb** is a conjunction which carries with it the force of an adverb.

Examples. — “Go *where* (to the place at which) glory waits thee;” I shall see you *when* I return. (Page 47.)

The clause introduced by a conjunctive adverb modifies some word in the principal sentence. (Page 48.)

Remark. — The principal conjunctive adverbs are: *as, after, before, how, since, therefore, till, until, when, where, wherefore, while* and *why*.

Direction. — For the parsing of the adverb see page one hundred and seven.

THE PREPOSITION.

1. A **Preposition** is a word used to show the relation between its object and some other word.

Remark. — The preposition shows the relation between its object and a word which is modified by the prepositional phrase. (Page 28.)

Two prepositions are frequently combined and used as one. In such cases treat the two prepositions as one, calling the combination a *complex preposition*.

Examples. — They came *from over* the river; It came *from under* the bridge. (Page 47.)

For is sometimes used as an *introductory* preposition.

Examples. — “*For* him to deceive,” “*For* us to do so,” etc.

When the relations between objects of thought are so obvious that they need no expression, the prepositions are usually omitted.

Examples. — He went home *yesterday*; The river is a *mile* wide; That block of buildings is worth a million. (Page 40.)

2. Two or more prepositions may have the same noun or pronoun for its object.

Examples. — He walked *up* and *down* the hill.

But, for, since, and some others, are frequently used as conjunctions.

Examples. — We will retire, *since* you have returned; I must go, *for* it is late. (Page 108.)

Many words, **prepositional** in their nature, such as *after*, *about*, *up*, *before*, *beyond*, *below*, are used as **adverbs**.

Examples. — You may go *before*, but John must stay *behind*. The eagle flew *up*, then soared *about* and afterwards descended.

Prepositions are much used as parts of compound words; and when thus used they are generally adverbial.

Examples. — Uphold, *income*, *overshot*, *afterthought*.

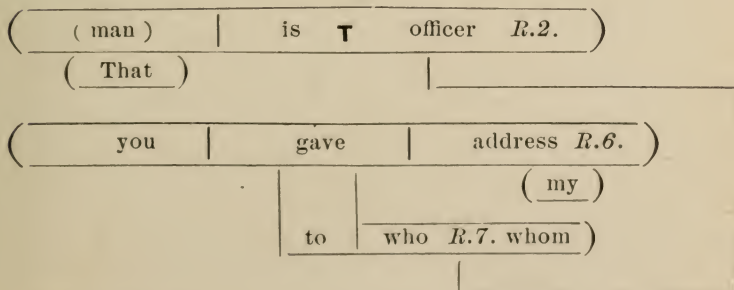
Caution. — It is inelègant, if not ungrammatical, to place a small word, especially a preposition, at the end of a sentence.

Examples. — Which house did you live in? What are you looking for? The better construction is, In which house did you live? For what are you looking?

RULE 7. — The object of a preposition is in the objective case.

Correct the following sentences using this as a model:

“That is the officer who you gave my address to.”



Who is a violation of Rule 7; it should have the objective form, *whom*.

“That is the officer to whom you gave my address;” is a sentence declarative; complex. **Officer**, the predicate of the principal sentence, is

modified by the subordinate sentence or clause, **to whom you gave my address**. **Gave** is modified by the prepositional phrase, **to whom**. (Page 29.)

1. Who is this intended for? 2. How much did his parents send him to the city with? 3. Which school do you go to? 4. This was intended for Henry and I. 5. He rode several miles driving a herd of sheep on horseback. 6. Which of these books can I find that passage in? 7. What firm are you agent for? 8. He put baskets of peaches in his wagon without a cover.

Remark. -- *The order of parsing the preposition, and the models are on page 111.*

REMARKS.

3. Care should be taken to select such prepositions, and such only, as express the relation intended.

With denotes an instrument; **by** denotes a cause:

Examples. — He was struck *with* a stone, and died *by* violence.

Of denotes possession of a thing or quality; **to** denotes that the thing or quality is directed towards something else.

Examples. — She is a friend *of* mine; She has been a friend *to* me.

Among, amongst, are applicable to more than two objects; **between, betwixt,** are applicable to two objects only.

Examples. — He divided his share *among* his six companions; He divided the estate *between* his two brothers. (Page 110.)

Review page 110 and correct the following sentences:

1. He went away of a fine morning with a basket in to his hand.
2. William has gone south, accompanied with his brother. 3. He was struck by a stone, and died with violence. 4. I shall pay you some time during next week. 5. We divided our share among the two boys. 6. I put the cards in the box. 7. Henry and James are to school. 8. He divided his share between his six companions. 9. We differ with you on that subject. 10. They ought to profit from the errors of others.

2. Have you reviewed the work of page one hundred ten? 2. He is dependent on his friends. 3. They came in the house. 4. I differ with you. 5. He has been at Cincinnati. 6. Never depart out of the straight path. 7. Where is the key to that door? 8. I shall study on page one hundred nine. 9. He put his pen in the ink. 10. The sultry morning was followed with a hail-storm.

THE CONJUNCTION.

1. A **conjunction** connects sentences, or the elements of a sentence, between which it is placed.

2. Conjunctions are divided into two general classes : *Coördinate* and *Subordinate*.

3. **Co-ordinate Conjunctions** connect words of the same form — verbs in the same mood and tense, or nouns in the same case.

Examples. — Oxygen *and* hydrogen are the elements of which water is composed; Henry came *and* Walter went; George has come but Arthur has gone. (Page 111.)

4. Co-ordinate Conjunctions may be divided into four classes :

- (1) **Copulative**, denoting addition: *And, also, further, moreover.*
- (2) **Adversative**, denoting opposition: *But, still, yet, only, however, notwithstanding.*
- (3) **Alternative**, denoting that which may be chosen or omitted: *Else, otherwise, or, nor, either.*
- (4) **Illative**, which implies a consequence: *Therefore, wherefore, hence, thence, because, consequently, accordingly.*

5. **Subordinate Conjunctions** are those which join elements of different ranks or names.

Remark.—Subordinate Conjunctions connect modifying clauses with the words they modify. (Page 45.)

6. Subordinate conjunctions may be divided into four classes:

- (1) Of **manner** or **degree**, denoting likeness and excess or deficiency: *As, as if, how, although, than, so as.*
- (2) **Temporal**, denoting time: *Ere, after, before, until, whilst, when.*
- (3) **Local**, denoting rest in, or motion to or from place: *Where, there, whence, thence, whither, thither.*
- (4) **Causal**, denoting effect, condition, reason, result, or purpose: *So, that, if, unless, except, as, because, since, although, though, for, whereas, inasmuch as.*

Correlative Conjunctions are co-ordinate or subordinate conjunctions used in pairs, one referring or answering to the other.

Examples.—She is *as* tall *as* he. *Though* deep, *yet* clear. He is *both* learned and wise. (Page 113.)

EXERCISES.

Parse the Conjunctions:

1. I shall not go unless you go with me. 2. She works for no other purpose than to pass away the time. 3. The answer is the same as that in the book. 4. Those people live in houses as we do. 5. We should be industrious and economical as our forefathers were. 6. This is the reason why I staid at home. 7. My sister and I were at the concert last evening. 8. My brother said that he believed he would sell his horse. 9. William and Arthur are opening a new coal mine. 10. They make their crackers as we do.

7. Great care and good judgment should be used in selecting conjunctions for use in sentences.

Remark. — **Like** and **with** are often used for *as*; **that** for *why*; **but** for *than*; **without** for *unless*; **as well as** for *and*; **how** for *that*; **together with** for *and*.

EXERCISES.

To be corrected:

1. I shall not go *without* you go with me. 2. He works for no other purpose *but* to pass away the time. 3. The answer is the same *with* that in the book. 4. Those people live in houses *like* we do. 5. We should be industrious and economical, *like* our forefathers were. 6. That is the reason *that* I staid at home. 7. I, *as well as* my sister, were at the concert last evening. 8. My brother said *how* he believed he would sell his farm. 9. Henry, *together with* George, are opening a new grocery. 10. They make their bread *like* we do.

THE INTERJECTION.

An **Interjection** is a word used to denote some sudden or strong emotion.

Examples. — Alas! no hope for me remains. Adieu! adieu! my native land. (Page 114.)

In our language there are interjections corresponding to nearly every emotion of the human heart. The principal interjections are those expressing:

- (1) **Disappointment**; as, *Whew!*
- (2) **Contempt**; as, *Faugh! pshaw! fie! fudge!*
- (3) **Repression**; as, *Hist! mum! hush!*
- (4) **Imitation**; as, *Pop! ding-dong! bang!*
- (5) **Greeting or parting**; as, *Good bye! farewell! adieu!*
- (6) **Pain or suffering**; as, *Ah! alas! dear me! well-a-day!*
- (7) **Joy or glad surprise**; as, *Oh! ah! Hurrah! Huzza!*

PUNCTUATION.

1. PUNCTUATION is the art of dividing written language by points, in order that the relations of words and clauses may be plainly seen, and their meaning be readily understood.

Remark. — In reading, a pause is generally made where the point is used, but the points do not mark all the pauses.

2. The principal characters used in punctuation are the following:

Comma, ... ,	Exclamation Point, . !
Semicolon, ... ;	Dash, ... —
Colon, ... :	Curves, ... ()
Period, ...	Brackets, ... []
Interrogation Point, ?	

Note. — The rules for punctuation and capitals will be found scattered all through this work near exercises which furnish abundant examples for their illustration.

THE PERIOD.

The **Period** denotes the greatest degree of separation.

1. A period must be placed after every declarative and imperative sentence.

2. A period must be placed after every abbreviated word.

Examples. — Dr. H. B. Brown. We arrived at Valparaiso, Ind., August 10th, 1891.

THE COMMA.

The word **Comma** means *that which is cut off*, and the mark so called denotes the least degree of separation that requires a point.

1. Phrases and single words used parenthetically, should be separated from the rest of the sentence by commas.

Remark. — Phrases and words are parenthetical when they are not essential to the meaning and structure of the sentence; as, *It is mind, after all, which rules the world.*

2. A complex subject, if long, should be separated from the predicate by a comma.

3. A dependent clause should be separated by a comma, or by commas, from the clause upon which it depends.

Remark. — A clause is dependent when it modifies a word in the principal sentence, as, *If you desire to succeed in life, be industrious and honest.*

4. A clause used as subject, if it ends with a verb, should be separated from the predicate by a comma.

Example. — *That we shall go, has been decided.*

5. Antithetical words, phrases, and clauses should be separated by commas.

Example. — *Keen logic, and not a great demonstration, produces conviction.*

6. Adverbs used independently, or modifying an entire proposition, should be set off by commas.

Example. — *Well, since this is true, I shall depart never to return. Indeed, you are mistaken.*

7. Words repeated for the sake of emphasis should be set off from the rest of the sentence by commas.

Example. — *“Verily, verily, I say unto you.”*

8. Nouns and pronouns in the nominative absolute case, should be separated from the rest of the sentence by commas.

Examples.—Go, my *child*, and do so no more. Your *book*, where is it?

9. A direct quotation, separated by a principal clause, should be set off by commas.

Example.—“That is right, my son,” he said, “continue in the good work.”

10. Absolute phrases, adjectives, participles, and appositives, should be separated from the context by commas.

Examples.—Properly speaking, there is no such thing as chance. The maxim, “Enough is as good as a feast,” has silenced many a vain wish.

Remark.—Nouns in apposition unmodified, or modified by *the* only, are not usually separated by commas; as, The Emperor Napoleon was a great general.

11. When a verb is omitted to avoid repetition, its place is usually supplied by a comma.

Example.—War is the law of violence; peace, the law of love.

12. When words are arranged in pairs, each couplet should be set off by commas.

Example.—Sink or swim, live or die, survive or perish, I am forever bound to the cause.

13. Each term of a series of words in the same construction, should be set off by commas.

Examples.—He has horses, cattle, sheep, farms, houses, mills and whole forests of pine timber.

14. Members of sentences containing correlative adverbs and conjunctions, should be separated by commas.

Example.—The harder we study, the better we like to study.

15. The members of compound sentences, when short and connected by conjunctions, should be separated by commas.

Example.— His simplicity inspired confidence, his eloquence aroused enthusiasm, and his gentleness invited friendship.

16. A comma should be used, even when not required by the grammatical construction, whenever it serves to develop the sense or prevent ambiguity.

EXERCISES.

Supply such points as are necessary in the following sentences:

1. Education if it cannot accomplish every thing can nevertheless accomplish much. 2. Never be discouraged however gloomy the prospect. 3. The blind and the lame and the deaf were there. 4. I see then in revelation a purpose corresponding with that for which human teaching was instituted. 5. In every line of Dante's "Divine Comedy" we discern the asperity which is produced by pride struggling with misery. 6. We often commend as well as censure imprudently. 7. Apostles prophets and martyrs have proved the truth of the Christian faith. 8. The oranges lemons and figs which grow in the northern range of the Southern States are of an inferior quality. 9. Hail Patience blest source of peace blest cure for every pain.

THE SEMICOLON.

The **Semicolon** denotes a degree of separation greater than that denoted by the comma.

1. The semicolon should be placed between the members of a compound sentence, unless the connection is exceedingly close.

Example.—"Lying lips are an abomination to the Lord; but they that deal truly are His delight."

2. The semicolon should be used before *as, namely, to wit, viz.*, introducing an example or an illustration.

3. The semicolon should be placed between the greater divisions of sentences, when minor subdivisions occur that are separated by commas.

Example. — Mirth should be the embroidery of conversation, not the web; and wit the ornament of the mind, not the furniture.

4. When several long clauses occur in succession, all having common dependence on some other clause or word, they must be separated by semicolons.

Example. — My imagination would conjure up all that I had heard or read of the watery world beneath me; of the finny tribes that roam in the fathomless valleys; of shapeless monsters that lurk among the very foundations of the earth; and those wild phantasms that swell the tales of fishermen and sailors. — *Irving.*

EXERCISES.

Supply such points as are necessary in the following sentences:

1. Wit is abrupt darting scornful and tosses its analogies in your face Humor is slow and shy insinuating its fun into your heart. 2. The gem has lost its sparkle scarce a vestige of its former brilliancy remains. 3. The poisoned valley of Java is twenty miles in extent and of considerable width it presents a most desolate appearance being entirely destitute of vegetation. 4. A Scotch mist becomes a shower and a shower a flood and a flood a storm and a storm a tempest and a tempest thunder and lightning and thunder and lightning heaven-quake and earthquake.

THE COLON.

The **Colon** indicates the next greatest degree of separation to that denoted by the period.

1. The members of a compound sentence, whose parts are phrases or clauses set off by semicolons, should be separated by colons.

Example. — We perceive the shadow to have moved along the dial, but did not see it moving; we observe that the grass has grown, though it was impossible to see it grow: so the advances we make in knowledge, consisting of minute and gradual steps, are perceivable only after intervals of time.

2. A colon must be placed before a formal enumeration of particulars, and a direct quotation, when referred to by the words *thus, following, as follows, etc.*

Example. — Man consists of three parts: first, the body, with its sensual appetites; second, the mind, with its thirst for knowledge; third, the soul, with its undying principle.

PROSODY.

1. **Prosody** treats of the quantity of syllables, of accent, and of the laws of versification.

2. **Versification** is the art of making verse.

3. **Verse** is the musical arrangement of words, according to some regular accent.

4. **Prose** is discourse written in language or ordinarily used, having reference, mainly, to a clear and distinct statement of the writer's meaning.

5. **Poetry** is discourse written in metrical language. Its aim is to please, by addressing the imagination and the sensibilities.

6. **Poetry** is written either in *Rhyme* or in *Blank Verse*.

7. **Rhyme** is a similarity of sound, between the last syllables of different lines or half lines.

Remark. — A *couplet* or *distich*, consists of two lines rhyming together. A *triplet*, of three.

8. **Blank Verse** is verse without rhyme.

9. **Heroic Verse** is verse that consists of iambic pentameters.

Remark.—This verse is so called because it is chiefly used in epic poetry, or in poetry that relates the exploits of heroes. See Milton and Shakspeare.

10. A **Stanza** is a group of lines forming a division of a poem.

POETIC FEET.

1. A **Poetic Foot** is a part of a line that consists generally of two or three syllables, one of which is *accented*.

2. **Accent** is a stress of voice on a certain syllable of a word or foot.

The *quantity* of a syllable is its relative quantity of sound, or it is the relative time occupied in uttering the syllable. In regard to quantity, some syllables are *long*, some are *short*, and some are *variable*.

The principle feet used in English verse, are the *Iambus*, the *Trochee*, the *Pyrrhic*, the *Spondee*, the *Anapest*, the *Dactyl*, and the *Amphibrach*.

3. The **Iambus**; a foot of two syllables, accented on the second.

Ex.—“A mind' | not to' | be changed' | by place' | or time'.”

4. The **Trochee**; a foot of two syllables, accented on the first.

Ex.—“Ru'in | seize' thee, | ruth'less king'.”

5. The **Spondee**; a foot of two long or accented syllables.

Ex.—“Rocks', | caves', | lakes', | fens', | bogs', | dens', | and shades' | of death'.”

6. The **Pyrrhic**; a foot of two short or unaccented syllables.

The pyrrhic is sometimes used in iambic verse, to avoid accenting an unimportant word.

Ex. — “What could’ | be less’ | *than to* | afford’ | him praise’?”

Instead of resting on a short syllable, the accent is sometimes allowed to pass to the first syllable of the next foot, making that foot a spondee.

Ex. — Of the | low, sun’ | set clouds’, | *and the* | blue’ sky’.”

7. The **Anapest**; a foot of three syllables, accented on the last.

Ex. — “All at once’ | and all o’er’ | with a might’ | y uproar’.”

8. The **Dactyl** consists of one accented and two unaccented syllables.

Ex. — Heed’ not the | corpse’, though a | king’s’, in your | path’.”

9. The **Amphibrach** consists of one unaccented, one accented, and one unaccented syllable.

Ex. — “A pret’ ti- | er din’ ner | I nev’ er | set eyes’ on.”

10. The **Cæsura**, a long or accented syllable used as one foot.

Ex. — Gold’, | gold’, | gold’, | gold’, | .

Hea’vy to | get’ and | light’ to | hold’. — *Hood.*

A foot of three unaccented syllables is called a *Tribrach*. It is rarely found in English poetry.

POETIC LINES AND PAUSES.

1. Feet are formed into lines of various length; and the lines are then called *Iambic*, *Trochaic*, *Anapestic*, or *Dactylic*, according to the kind of foot which prevails in them.

2. Lines are also named according to the number of feet composing them.

- (1) *Monometer*, a line of one foot.
- (2) *Dimeter*, a line of two feet.
- (3) *Trimeter*, a line of three feet.
- (4) *Tetrameter*, a line of four feet.
- (5) *Pentameter*, a line of five feet.
- (6) *Hexameter*, a line of six feet.
- (7) *Heptameter*, a line of seven feet.
- (8) *Octometer*, a line of eight feet.

Verse, therefore, may be *Iambic Monometer*, *Iambic Dimeter*, etc.; *Trochaic Monometer*, *Trochaic Dimeter*, etc.; *Anapestic Monometer*, *Anapestic Dimeter*, etc.; *Dactylic Monometer*, *Dactylic Dimeter*, etc.

A verse or foot in which a syllable is wanting at the end, is called *catalectic*: a full verse or foot is called *acatalectic*.

POETIC PAUSES.

1. To improve the rhythm or verse, there are two pauses; the *final* and the *cæsural*.

2. The **Final Pause** is a slight pause made at the end of each line, even when the grammatical sense does not require it.

Remark. — This pause should always be observed in reading poetry, even when there is no punctuation point at the end of the line.

3. The **Cæsural Pause** is a slight pause made within the line, most frequently about the middle of it; and it belongs chiefly to long lines.

The cæsural pause is a natural suspension of the voice in reading. The shorter kinds of verse are without it. Its natural place is near the middle of the line; but the sense often requires that it be placed elsewhere.

Examples.—“ Warms in the sun, || refreshes in the breeze,
Glow in the stars, || and blossoms in the trees.” — *Pope*.

“ And now, || my tongue the secret tells.”

“ No sooner had the Almighty ceased, || than all
The multitude of angels, || with a shout
Loud, || as from numbers without number, || sweet
As from blest voices || uttering joy.” — *Milton*.

This versification is admirable. The cæsural pause after “*loud*,” and that before “*sweet*,” and the final pause after “*sweet*,” make us halt in reading, to enjoy the exquisite luxury of the sense.

4. Long lines can sometimes be divided at the cæsural pause into two lines each.

IAMBIC MEASURES.

1. *Iambic Monometer.*

“How bright’,
The light’!”

2. *Iambic Dimeter.*

“Their love’ | and awe’
Supply’ | the law’.”

3. *Iambic Trimeter.*

“Blue light’ | nings singe’ | the waves’,
And thun | der rends | the rock.”

4. *Iambic Tetrameter.*

“The joys’ | above’ | are un’ | derstood’
And rel’ | ish’d on’- | ly by’ | the good’.”

5. *Iambic Pentameter.*

“For praise’ | too dear’- | ly lov’d’ | or warm’- | ly sought’,
Enfee’ | -bles all’ | inter’- | nal strength’ | of thought’.”
“With sol- | emn ad- | ora- | tion down | they cast
Their crowns | inwove | with am- | arant | and gold’.”

This is often called *Heroic Measure* because *epic* or *heroic* poetry is written in it.

6. *Iambic Hexameter.*

“Thy realm’ | forev’- | er lasts’, | thy own’ | Messi’ | ah reigns’.”

This is seldom used except to complete a stanza in an ode, or occasionally to close a period in heroic rhyme. This verse is called **Alexandrine**.

7. *Iambic Heptameter.*

"The Lord' | descend'- | ed from' | above', | and bow'd' | the heav'- |
ens high'."

Modern poets have divided this kind of verse, into alternate lines of four and of three feet; thus,—

"O blind' | to each' | indul'- | gent aim'
Of power' | supreme' | -ly wise',
Who fan'- | cy hap'- | piness' | in aught'
The hand' | of heaven' | denies'!"

8. *Long Meter* is iambic tetrameter, arranged in stanzas of four lines, rhyming in couplets or alternately.

Ex. — Praise God' | from whom' | all bless'- | ings flow':
Praise him' | all creat'- | ures here' | below';
Praise him' | above', | ye heaven'- | ly host';
Praise Fath'- | er, Son,' | and Ho'- | ly Ghost.'

9. *Common Meter* is a stanza of four iambic lines, the first and third being tetrameter, the second and fourth, trimeter,

Ex. — Come let' | us join' | our cheer'- | ful songs',
With an'- | gels round' | the throne';
Ten thou'- | sand thou'- | sand are' | their tongues',
But all' | their joys' | are one'.

10. *Short Meter* is a stanza of four iambic lines, the first, second, and fourth being trimeter, the third, tetrameter.

Ex. — There sin' | and sor'- | row cease',
And ev'- | ery con' | flict's o'er';
There we' | shall dwell' | in end'- | less peace'
Nor thirst' | nor hun'- | ger more'.

11. The *Elegiac Stanza* consists of four iambic lines rhyming alternately.

12. A *Sonnet* is a poem complete in fourteen iambic lines.

TROCHAIC MEASURES.

1. *Trochaic Monometer.*

Chang'ing,
Rang'ing.

2. *Trochaic Dimeter.*

"Fan'cy | vie'wing,
Joys' en- | su'ing."

3. *Trochaic Trimeter.*

"In' the | da'y's of | old',
Sto'ries | pla'inly | told'."

4. *Trochaic Tetrameter.*

"Round' a | ho'ly | calm' dif- | fus'ing,
Love' of | peace' and | lone'ly | mus'ing."

5. *Trochaic Pentameter.*

"Vir'tue's | bri'ghtning | ray' shall | beam' for | ev'er."

6. *Trochaic Hexameter.*

"On' a | moun'tain | stretched' be- | neath' a | ho'a'ry | willow,
Lay' a | shep'herd | swain', and | viewed' the | rolling | billow."

7. *Trochaic Heptameter.*

"In' the | spring' a | fee'ble | crim'son | comes' up- | on' | the | rob'
ins | breas't;
In' the | spring' the | want'on | lap'wing | gets' him- | self'an- | oth'
er | nest'."

ANAPESTIC MEASURES.

In Anapestic verse the stress is laid on every third syllable. The first foot of an anapestic line, may be an iambus.

1. *Anapestic Monometer.*

"On the land',
Let me stand'."

2. *Anapestic Dimeter.*

"In my rage', | shall be seen'
The revenge' | of a queen'."

3. *Anapestic Trimeter.*

"I am mon'- | arch of all' | I survey';
My right' | there is none' | to dispute'."

4. *Anapestic Tetrameter.*

"At the close' | of the day', | when the ham'- | let is still',
And mor'- | 'tals the sweets' | of forget' | fulness prove'."

DACTYLIC MEASURES.

1. *Dactylic Monometer.*

"Fear'fully.
Tear'fully."

2. *Dactylic Dimeter.*

"Free' from sa | ti'ety,
Care', and anx | i'ety,
Charms' in va | riety,
Fall' to his | share'."

3. *Dactylic Trimeter.*

"Wear'ing a- | way' in his | use'fulness,
Love'liness, | beau'ty, and | truth'fulness.

4. *Dactylic Tetrameter.*

"Boy' will an- | tic'ipate, | lav'ish, and | dis'sipate
All' that your | bu'sy pate | hoard'ed with | care,
And', in their | fool'ishn'ess, | pas'sion, and | mul'ishness,
Charge' you with | churl'ishness, | spurn'ing your | pray'r."

5. *Dactylic Hexameter.*

"Now' thou dost | wel'come me, | wel'come me | from' the dark | sea,
Land' of the | beau'tiful, | beau'tiful | land' of the free."

A dactylic verse rarely ends with a dactyl. It sometimes ends with a trochee, sometimes with a long syllable.

AMPHIBRACH MEASURES.

1. *Amphibrach Trimeter.*

"A breath' of | submis'sion | we breathe' not;
The sword' we | have drawn' we | will sheathe' not."

2. *Amphibrach Tetrameter.*

The flesh' was | a pic'ture | for paint'ers | to study,
The fat' was | so whit'e and | the lean' was so rud'dy.

3. Different kinds of feet are often found in the same line.

4. Different measures are frequently used in the same poem.

POETIC LICENSES.

A Poetic License is an allowed deviation from the correctness of ordinary prose, or from the regular laws of versification, in order that the poet may be enabled to reach the requirements of verse.

APPENDIX.

ADDRESSED TO THE TEACHER.

The work as arranged in this book is designed for use in the fourth and fifth grades of public schools and in corresponding departments of other institutions of learning.

Since it is through analysis that we learn to know with exactness the use of words in a sentence and the relations which they bear to each other, it follows that it is through the same source that we find the most systematic as well as the shortest, process in reaching the rules of grammar and the principles which govern our language. Analysis, therefore, forms a large part of our work. The method pursued in doing the work on the 7th and succeeding pages, should be substantially as follows:—

1. SUBJECT AND PREDICATE.

The teacher should always commence the work under a new topic with the analysis of the sentence given as a model, therefore, "Birds sing" should be taken as the first sentence here. The teacher should write it on the blackboard and then commence by asking the questions: —

About what is something said in this sentence? About what is the affirmation made?

"Birds" will be the answer given by the pupil called upon.* Write it on the blackboard and draw the line for the diagram. Then continue: —

Yes, "birds;" therefore, "birds" is the subject of the sentence.

* NOTE. — The pupils should not be permitted to answer in concert. Those prepared to answer may indicate their willingness to do so by raising their right hands. The teacher may then call upon individuals by name. See next page.

What is said of "birds?" What word expresses the action affirmed of "birds?"

"Sing" will be the answer given. The diagram completed, the teacher should analyze the sentence using the exact words given in the analysis on page 7.

The pupils should be then called upon, one by one, to analyze the sentence orally, in exact imitation of the teacher. It is best at first to call for volunteers, and it will be found that nearly every pupil in the class will become a volunteer before the close of the recitation. The timid ones, however, should not be neglected. Although the work the teacher should stimulate the backward pupils by asking them to recite oftener than those who are more bold and enterprising. Children delight to do that which they can do well. Thoroughness and rapidity are so desirable that they should be secured at every point in the work. Every sentence should be analyzed by from six to ten pupils and it should not be considered finished until the pupils analyze it with the fluency of ordinary conversation. One or two recitations will be sufficient to complete the analysis of the sentences given under the first topic.

2. OBJECTS WITH TRANSITIVE VERBS.

The work under this and the following topics should be commenced by presenting to the class for analysis a few sentences written on the blackboard thus: —

1. Columbus discovered America.
2. Merchants sell goods.
3. George studied history.
4. Birds build nests.

Since to diagram a sentence is to analyze it, the preparation of a lesson will consist in diagramming on slates the sentences assigned. During the recitation the same sentences should be diagrammed by the teacher on the blackboard so as to give the pupils an opportunity of detecting and correcting their mistakes.

"Columbus discovered America" being the sentence given as a model, it should, at the first recitation, be disposed of by teacher and pupils together. The teacher may ask questions like the following to find the

Subject: —

About what (whom) is something said in this sentence?

About what (whom) is the affirmation made?

What (who) is the actor?

What is the subject?

“Columbus” will be the answer. It should be written on the blackboard and the lines drawn for the diagram. The following questions may be asked to find the

Predicate: —

What is said of Columbus?

What word expresses the action affirmed of Columbus?

What did Columbus do?

What is the predicate?

“Discovered” will be the answer given by the pupil named. The following question may be asked to find the

Object: —

Can you discover without discovering something?

Could Columbus discover without discovering something?

What did Columbus discover?

What is the object of “discover”?

“America” will be the answer. As soon as the diagram is completed the teacher should analyze the sentence, using the words given in the analysis on page 8. A number of the pupils, not less than eight or ten, should then be asked to analyze it in exact imitation of the teacher. Correctness and rapidity should be secured in the oral analysis of every sentence before it is passed.

Rem. — The strict attention of every member of the class can be secured by requesting the pupils to analyze the sentence mentally with the pupil who is reciting, and by allowing them to criticise the oral analysis at the close of each individual recitation. (See note, page 120) The teacher should see that this request is strictly complied with. No careless inattention should be tolerated.

A vital feature in this method is that everything is learned by experience rather than by definition. While doing the work required by this plan, the pupils are continually making discoveries which develop into that definite knowledge which grammarians

usually try to present in print. Diagrams and outlines like those on pages eight and nine will be found very useful in the work.

The outline on page eight should be kept on the blackboard until the work under the eighth topic is completed. The diagrams and



SUGGESTIONS.

Page 8.—Train the pupils into rapidity and correctness in the analysis of sentences. The fewer explanations made by the instructor the better.

Page 10.—Each sentence should be analyzed by several pupils in rapid succession. The instructor should guide the pupils in the work and use as few words as possible. The knowledge we are seeking is acquired almost wholly by experience.

Page 12.—Write on the blackboard the form for correcting given here, and train the pupils in the use of it. Every form for correcting presented in this work should be adhered to strictly.

Page 18.—Study the structure of this and all other letters carefully, especially its form and punctuation.

Page 19.—Continually ask questions reviewing the work from the beginning. Give the class to understand clearly when an answer is correct. Leave nothing in doubt.

Page 22.—Hereafter it will not be necessary to have all the sentences diagramed in full on the blackboard. Draw the lines showing the location of each word, and write a few of the most important. The pupils, however, should always bring to the recitation all the work done on slates or paper.

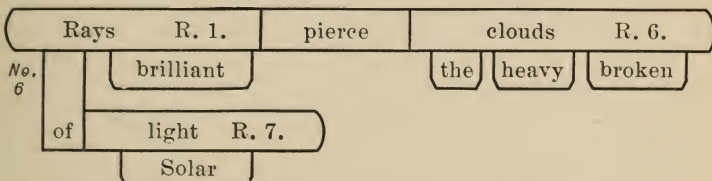
Page 48.—If the class is an advanced one, taking a rapid course, time being limited, much of the work presented here may be omitted. The judgment of the instructor must rule in this matter.

Page 47.—The **Order for Parsing** will make a better form for slate work than is given in the **Models**. It will be sufficient to parse the *noun*, *pronoun* and *verb* if your course is a rapid one.

KEY TO ANALYSIS OF SENTENCES.

Page 10.

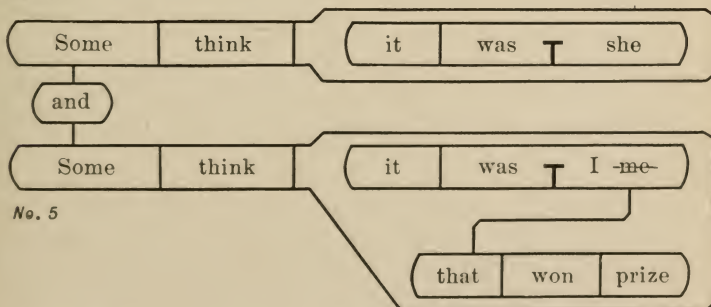
6 Brilliant rays of solar light pierce the heavy, broken clouds.



'Rays' is the subject, 'pierce' is the predicate, 'clouds' is the object. 'Rays' is modified by 'brilliant' an adjective and by the phrase, 'of light.' 'Clouds' is modified by 'the,' 'heavy' and 'broken' three adjectives. This sentence is out of grade on page 10.

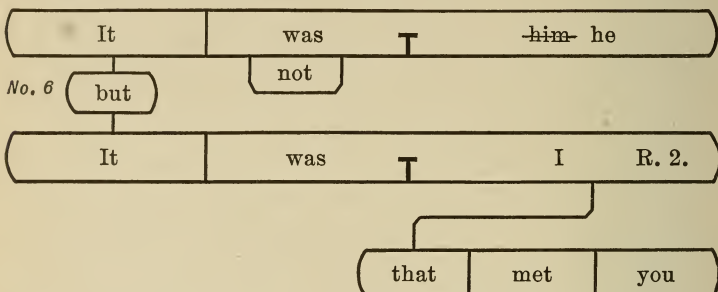
Page 23 in Graded Method in English Grammar:

5. Some think it was **her** and some think it was **me** that won the prize. This is a compound sentence and each of the single sentences of which it is composed is complex. The first transitive verb *think*, has a simple sentence for its object; the second transitive verb *think*, has a complex sentence for its object.



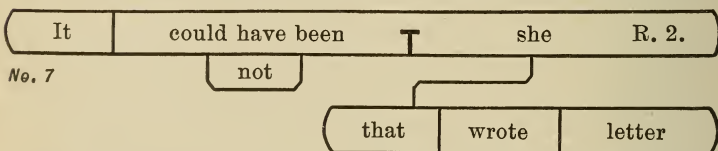
Her in the first sentence is a violation of Rule two; it should have the nominative form, **she**. **Me**, in the second sentence is a violation of Rule two; it should have the nominative form, **I**.

6. It was not **him** but **me** that met you. We always supply the missing words in the analysis. This is a compound sentence composed of a simple sentence and a complex sentence.



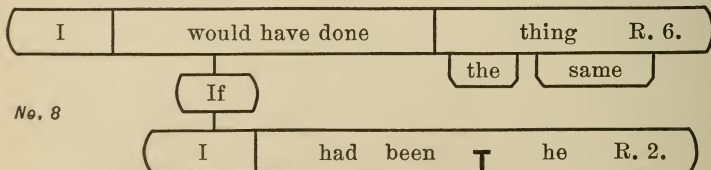
Him is a violation of Rule two; it should have the nominative form, **he**. **Me** is a violation of Rule two; it should have the nominative form, **I**.

7. It could not have been her that wrote the letter.



Her is a violation of Rule two; it should have the nominative form, **she**. 'She' is modified by the relative clause, 'that wrote letter.'

8. If I had been **him** I would have done the same thing. "Would have done" is modified by the clause, "If I had been him."



Him is a violation of Rule two; it should have the nominative form, **he**. See the examination on page thirty-one.

9. Whom do they say that I am? The transitive verb "do say" has for its object, the clause or sentence, "I am whom." The introductory conjunction, that, may be omitted in the analysis.



Whom is a violation of Rule two; it should have the nominative form, **who**.

Page 29.

1. "Except him and me," "except her," "like him," "aboard the ship," "according to law," "among the weeds" *and* "along the border" are prepositional phrases. Examination on page 31.

Page 30.

3. We were all present except him. *We* and *all* indicate the same persons. *All* is an appositive under Rule four. "Except him" is a prepositional phrase. **He** is a violation of Rule seven; it should have the objective form, **him**.

5. There is no one here except him and I. "There" is an expletive or word of euphony and may be omitted in the analysis. See page 47. "Except him and I" is a prepositional phrase. **I** is a violation of Rule 7; it should have the objective form, **me**.

3. Between you and I he is not noted for honesty. 'Between you and I' may be treated as an independent prepositional phrase or as a phrase modifying the verb, 'is noted.' is a violation of Rule seven; it should have the objective form, **me**.

4. He maketh them to stagger like a drunken man. 'Them' is the subject of the infinitive, 'to stagger,' under Rule 16, page 42.

9. No one was there except he and his brother. 'Except he and his brother,' is a prepositional phrase modifying 'one' or 'was.' **He** is a violation of Rule seven; it should have the objective form, **him**.

Page 41.

2. It is my desire that he go at once. 'That he go at once' may be treated as the real subject of the sentence or as an Appositive. Page 26. **Goes** is a violation of Rule 17; it should have the subjunctive or plural form, **go**.

5. The general command that the traitor dies for the crime. The subjunctive clause, "That the traitor dies for the crime" is the object of the transitive verb, commanded. '**Dies**' is a violation of Rule 17; it should have the subjunctive or plural form, **die**.

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A BRIEF
INTRODUCTORY COURSE
IN OUR
ENGLISH LANGUAGE
USING
ENGLISH GRAMMAR,
AS THE MEDIUM

BY
M. D. MUGAN

METROPOLITAN PUBLISHING Co.
ST. LOUIS, MO.

This work is designed as an easy introduction to the practical part of the subject regardless of the grammar in use in the school. It furnishes the material, leads the pupil to investigate and guides him in the work.

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STEPPING STONES IN LANGUAGE AND LITERATURE.

If you memorize every sentence from the beginning to the end of an ordinary arithmetic and fail to solve the problems, you will then not be able to calculate the value of $10\frac{1}{2}$ ounces of silver at $48\frac{1}{2}$ cents an ounce.

If you memorize every sentence from the beginning to the end of an ordinary grammar and fail to reason out the relations which the words bear to each other in the sentence, you will then not be able to apply the rules of grammar to the words individually, and, therefore, you will not be able to detect and correct the errors in such sentences as the following and give the reason for correcting:

1. Who did he get it from? 21
2. This is the strongest of the two. 29.
3. Who can he have given it to? 19.
4. Neither of the boys read very well. 28.
5. It must have been him that devised the plan. 24.
6. The singular form of verbs end in what letter? 26
7. Analysis of these sentences on the pages indicated by the numbers at the ends of the lines.

In this work almost everything is referred to reason. While doing the work the student discovers for himself that vast number of facts which is generally presented, on the pages of the ordinary grammar, to be memorized. This reasoning method makes that abstruse subject easy, interesting and practical.

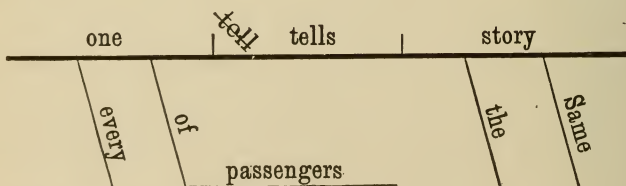
We acquire a knowledge of words from every branch of school work as well as from the dictionary and

general conversation. A knowledge of the relations which words bear to each other in sentences and ability to perceive them with the rapidity of thought can be acquired only by experience in the analysis.

The interdependence of words in sentences demands the applications of laws of language, known as rules of grammar, and the use of particular forms of words. A knowledge of the forms of words and the laws of language, combined with ability to perceive the relations, enables us to detect errors and gives us ability to select, and use the correct form of word in each and every construction.

The following are examples of analysis and the applications of rules which will serve to illustrate the work and the method under consideration.

“Every one of the passengers ~~tell~~ the same story” is a sentence, simple. ‘One’ is the subject; ‘~~tell~~’ is the predicate; ‘story’ is the object. ‘One’ is modified by ‘every’ an adjective and by the phrase ‘of passengers.’ ‘Story’ is modified by ‘the’ and ‘same’ two adjectives.



The analysis proves to us that ‘one’ is the subject of the verb, ‘~~tell~~’ The rule says:

A verb must agree with its sueject in number.

The verb, ‘tell’ having the singular subject, ‘one,’ should have the singular form, ‘tells.’

“~~Who~~ do you think I met in Paris” is a sentence, complex. ‘You’ is the subject of the principal sentence; ‘do think’ is the predicate; the clause, ‘I met who in Paris’ is the object. Of this clause or sentence ‘I’ is the subject; ‘met’ is the predicate and ‘~~who~~’ is the object.

The analysis proves to us that ‘~~who~~’ is the object of the transitive verb, ‘met.’ The rule which we must apply says:

The object of a transitive verb is in the objective case and should have the objective form.



Whom is the objective form and the sentence should be: “Whom do you think I met in Paris?”

Many of the most prevalent errors in the language of every-day life cannot be referred to rules of grammar. They are violations of the laws of good taste, common sense and logic. Analysis, which shows so clearly the use of every word in the sentence, furnishes the most powerful means of eradicating all such errors and, at the same time, gives us ability to use clear, strong, precise periods instead of the obscure, weak, equivocal expressions that too often mar the beauties of composition and conversation.

Having, in the foregoing pages, explored the field, to some extent, in which our work in the study of our language and literature must be done, we will now proceed to the work.

STEPPING STONES IN

In grading the sentences from the simplest to the most complicated, we have found thirty-six possible combinations of words forming sentences, different arrangements of which, we present in eighty-three sentences diagrammed and analyzed in full, so as to make the work easy for all.

There are only about fourteen rules that are ever violated in general conversation, so our task is not a long one, and it is, by our method, intensely interesting. We commence with short, simple sentences but they grow, day by day, until they become very complex and complicated.

We will commence the work with the analysis of sentences which will enable you—

1. To detect the relations which words bear to each other in sentences.
2. To apply the law or rule demanded by the relation to each and every word.
3. To detect and correct the mistakes which we hear so frequently.
4. To use correct and richly polished language with every element well selected and properly adjusted in the sentence.

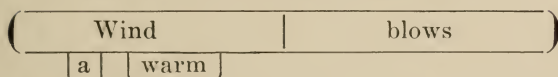
You will find this analysis a delightful instrument for intellectual developement as well as a most powerful key with which to unlock the meaning of sentences. A few months by this method does the work of years by the old method. Grammar is no longer that unsatisfactory, uninteresting, endless labor that it was.

This little volume is designed as a supplementary reader to be used as a companion for the third or fourth reader of the authorized edition. Every page should be at first treated purely as a reading lesson.

SUBJECT, PREDICATE, OBJECT.

The ocean eagle soared
 From his nest by the white wave's foam:
 And the rocking pines of the forest roared,
 This was their welcome home!

1. The ocean eagle soared.
2. The rocking pines roared.
3. Those white clouds float.
4. The ancients built earthen houses.
5. Arthur found a large rubber ball.

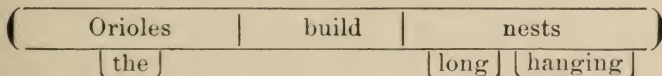


“A warm wind blows” is a sentence. ‘Wind’ is the subject; ‘blows’ is the predicate. ‘Wind’ is modified by ‘a’ and ‘warm’ two adjectives.

The subject of a sentence is the actor, the person or thing that does something. It is a name, a noun.

The predicate of a sentence is an action word, a verb.

An adjective is a word that points out or describes a noun.



“The orioles build long, hanging nests” is a sentence. ‘Orioles’ is the subject; ‘build’ is the predicate; ‘nests’ is the object. ‘Orioles’ is modified by ‘the’ an adjective; ‘nests’ is modified by ‘long’ and ‘hanging’ two adjectives.

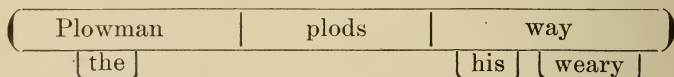
Diagram the sentences on this and the following pages neatly on slates or paper. During the recitation analyze them several times orally. Every pupil should be trained to analyze as rapidly as he can read.

SUBJECT AND OBJECT MODIFIED.

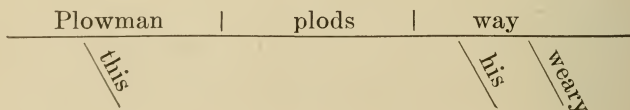
The curfew tolls the knell of parting day:
 The lowing herds wind slowly o'er the lea;
 The plowman homeward plods his weary way
 And leaves the world to darkness and to me.

1. The curfew tolls the knell.
2. That old hawk caught a pigeon.
3. A little yellow bird built the nest.
4. That cunning fox sees a fine large duck,
5. Some large black squirrels climbed that tree.

“The plowman homeward plods his weary way” is a sentence, ‘Plowman’ is the subject; ‘plods’ is the predicate; ‘way’ is the object. Plowman is modified by ‘the’ an adjective; ‘way’ is modified by ‘his’ a possessive and by ‘weary’ an adjective.



What is an adjective? Name the adjectives in these sentences that point out nouns. Name the adjectives that describe nouns. Find all the adjectives in the curfew stanza.



Write six sentences each having its subject and its object modified by one descriptive adjective..

Diagram the sentences on this page and analyze them orally several times.

The instructor should be generous in helping the class, especially while the work is new. Too much assistance can not be given during the first few weeks.

CASE FORMS OF PRONOUNS.

SINGULAR FORMS.

Nominative forms	I	he	she	it
Possessive forms	my	his	her	its
Objective forms	me	him	her	it

PLURAL FORMS.

Nominative forms	we	you	they	who
Possessive forms	our	your	their	whose
Objective forms	us	you	them	whom

The plural pronouns you, your, are now used both in the singular and the plural. Who, whose, whom are also used in the singular as well as in the plural.

When a pronoun represents the name of *one* person or thing it is singular. When it stands for a plural noun it is plural.

A pronoun is a word that takes the place of a noun. The case forms of nearly all the pronouns are on this page.

The subject of every sentence is either a noun or a pronoun. The object of every verb, the object in every sentence is either a noun or pronoun.

The case forms of the pronouns, as presented on this page, should be written on the blackboard in tabular form and kept there for convenient reference.

The declension or case forms of pronouns should be learned thoroughly by rote before passing this page. Nom. she, Poss. her, Obj. her; Nom. they Poss. their, Obj. them. I, my, me; we, our, us. Who, whose, whom.

NOUNS—PRONOUNS—ADJECTIVES.

When I remember all
 I've seen around me fall,
 I feel like one who treads alone
 Some banquet hall deserted,
 Whose lights are fled,
 Whose garlands dead,
 And all but him departed.

The subject of a sentence is a noun or pronoun.
 The object is a noun or pronoun. What is the
 predicate?

1. One, small, dark cloud hides the new moon.
2. Brave men protected the ancient city.
3. We remember all the genteel people.
4. Who treads the deserted banquet halls?
5. Whose banner does the captain wave?

“A blooming rose decorates his antique portico” is a sentence. ‘Rose’ is the subject; ‘decorates’ is the predicate; ‘portico’ is the object. ‘Rose’ is modified by ‘a’ and ‘blooming’ two adjectives. ‘Portico’ is modified by ‘his’ a possessive and by ‘antique’ an adjective.

Rose		decorates	portico	
a	blooming		his	antique

Where do we find capital letters used? What
 points do we find at the ends of sentences? What is a
 pronoun? A verb? An adjective?

Subject	Predicate	Object
---------	-----------	--------

PARTS OF SPEECH.

“Sweet bird, thy bower is ever green,
 Thy sky is ever clear;
 Thou hast no sorrow in thy song,
 No winter in thy year.

The parts of speech are nouns, pronouns, verbs, adjectives, conjunctions, prepositions, etc. Which of these are we now using?

1. One sweet bird has a green bower.
2. Another good bird may have a clear sky.
3. A great pine tree shades the little cot.
4. Whose banner do the children carry?
5. Who destroyed that beautiful apple tree?

Ensign		has been blowing		trumpet
<i>the</i> <i>little</i>				<i>whose</i>

“Whose trumpet has the little ensign been blowing” is a sentence. ‘Ensign’ is the subject; ‘has been blowing’ is the predicate; ‘trumpet’ is the object. ‘Ensign’ is modified by ‘the’ and ‘little’ two adjectives. ‘Trumpet’ is modified by ‘whose,’ a possessive.

Write six sentences each having a subject, predicate and object. Let the subject and object in each be modified by adjectives.

What is an adjective? A verb? A noun? A pronoun? A conjunction? How many parts of speech are we now using? Write a list of the adjectives in the five sentences above.

HELPING VERBS—AUXILIARIES.

Can storied urn or animated bust
 Back to its mansion call the fleeting breath ?
 Can Honor's voice provoke the silent dust,
 Or Flattery soothe the dull, cold ear of Death ?

The helping verbs are do, be, have, shall, will, may, can, must, might, could, would, should, in their different forms.

1. Can Honor's voice provoke the silent dust ?
2. Who should have caught them ?
3. Whom will you have seen ?
4. Whose book must they have found ?
5. Whose banner should he have waved ?

Urn	can call	breath
storied		the fleeting

“Can storied urn call the fleeting breath” is a sentence. ‘Urn’ is the subject; ‘can call’ is the predicate; ‘breath’ is the object. ‘Urn’ is modified by ‘storied,’ an adjective; ‘breath’ is modified by ‘the’ and ‘fleeting,’ two adjectives.

In this sentence ‘can’ is the helping verb and ‘call’ is the principal verb. Name the helping verbs in each of the other sentences.

The helping verbs are generally scattered through the sentences and must be gathered together in the analysis.

Are you diagramming all the numbered sentences neatly and correctly ?
 Can you analyze each and every sentence as rapidly as you can read after you have diagrammed it ?

HELPING VERBS—Continued.

“O, could I fly, I’d fly with thee !
 We’d make, on joyful wing,
 Our annual visit round the globe,
 Companions of the spring.”

1. Has that young owl been catching mice ?
2. Will that old hawk catch our pigeons ?
3. Could a little bird have built that nest ?
4. Can that fox have seen your ducks ?
5. Must those black squirrels climb that tree ?
6. Can Flattery soothe death’s dull, cold ear ?

Flattery		can soothe		ear
				death’s
				dull
				cold

“Can flattery soothe death’s dull, cold ear” is a sentence; interrogative. ‘Flattery’ is the subject, ‘can soothe’ is the predicate; ‘ear’ is the object. ‘Ear’ is modified by ‘death’s’ a possessive, and by ‘dull’ and ‘cold’ two adjectives.

How many words does it take to make one complete verb in each of the sentences above? What is the use of a possessive? An adjective? A verb? Have you analyzed all the numbered sentences from the first page? Can you analyze them orally as fast as you can read?

Write six sentences using two helping verbs in each predicate. Use pronouns for subjects.

Never ask: What is an adjective, what is a pronoun, what is a phrase or any other similar question unless the adjective, the pronoun or the phrase is at that time in a diagrammed sentence on blackboard where you can point to it while explaining.

CONJUNCTIONS.

The splendor falls on castle walls,
 And snowy summits old in story;
 The long light shakes across the lakes,
 And the wild cataract leaps in glory.

- | | |
|------------------------------|-----------------|
| 1. George and I saw the fox. | 6. It was I. |
| 2. She and John saw the fox. | 7. It was she. |
| 3. They saw the fox. | 8. It was they. |
| 4. He caught that fox. | 9. It was he. |
| 5. He could have caught it. | 10. It was we. |

“Henry and I might have trapped that ferocious wolf” is a sentence. ‘Henry’ and ‘I’ are the subjects; ‘might have trapped’ is the predicate; ‘wolf’ is the object. ‘Wolf’ is modified by ‘that’ and ‘ferocious’ two adjectives.

Henry and I	might have trapped	wolf
	that	ferocious

‘Trapped’ is the principal verb in this sentence. ‘Might’ and ‘have’ are helping verbs.

Can you put a noun in place of each of the pronouns in the sentences above? What is a noun? A pronoun? A verb?

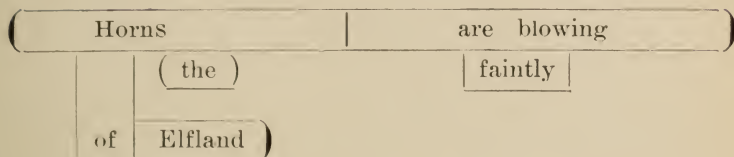
A conjunction is a word that connects words and sentences. The word, *and*, is the only conjunction here used.

Write six sentences using in each two objects, a noun and a pronoun, connected by a conjunction. Let the noun be modified by an adjective.

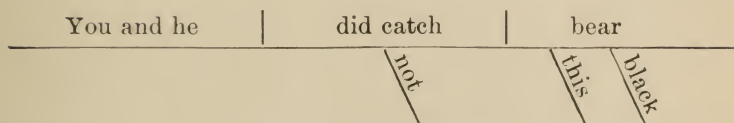
Reduce everything to an object lesson. Never ask what is an adverb, a preposition, an adjective until you have the adverb, the preposition or adjective in a sentence diagrammed on the blackboard where you can point to it.

AUXILIARIES AND CONJUNCTIONS.

O hark ! O hear ! how thin and clear.
 And thinner, clearer, farther going !
 O sweet and far, from cliff and scar,
 The horns of Elfland faintly blowing.



1. Could we have caught that fox ?
2. Can she have seen that fox ?
3. Should they have seen the fox ?
4. Who should have shot that fox ?
5. Did he and John not wound it ?



“Did you and he not catch this black bear” is a sentence. ‘You’ and ‘he’ are the subjects; ‘did catch’ is the predicate; ‘bear’ is the object. ‘Did catch’ is modified by ‘not’ an adverb, ‘bear’ is modified by ‘this’ and ‘black’ two adjectives.

Write six sentences using two helping verbs in each predicate. Give each sentence two subjects connected by a conjunction.

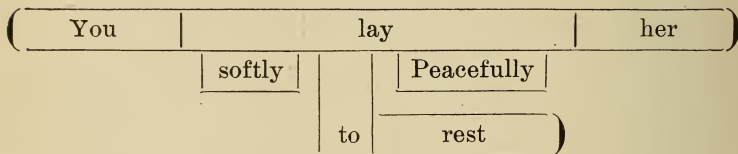
The diagrams are designed as a lesson in drawing and should receive quite as much care and attention as any drawing lesson. The printer's curves at the ends of the lines should be made straight lines on slates and paper. The printer's badly connected joints should be made perfect with the pencil.

ADVERBS OF MANNER.

Softly, peacefully, lay her to rest,
 Place the turf lightly on her young breast,
 Gently, solemnly, bend o'er the bed
 Where ye have pillowed thus early her head.

An adverb is a word that modifies a verb, an adjective, or another adverb. The adverbs here modify verbs only.

1. George and Henry walk slowly.
2. William walks rapidly.
3. He acts carelessly.
4. They act carefully.
5. One subject makes a singular subject.
6. Two subjects make a plural subject.



“Softly, peacefully, lay her to rest” is a sentence. ‘You’ understood, is the subject; ‘lay’ is the predicate; ‘her’ is the object. The verb, ‘lay’ is modified by ‘softly’ and ‘peacefully’ two adverbs, and by the phrase, ‘to rest,’ a preposition and its object.

A singular noun or pronoun means but one person or thing. A plural noun is the name of more than one thing. Name the singular nouns in the sentences above. Name the plural nouns and pronouns.

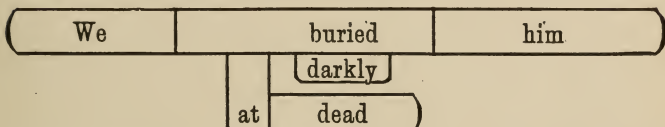
Plural nouns generally end in s. How do plural verbs generally end ?

Have you noticed that the three words in the first line of the diagram make the statement—tell the fact? Read that one line in every diagram in the book. It contains the subject, predicate, object.

ADVERBS—Continued.

We buried him darkly, at dead of night,
 The sods with our bayonets turning,
 By the struggling moonbeam's misty light,
 And the lantern dimly burning.

1. This boy works quietly and studiously.
2. Some boys work rapidly and carelessly.
3. This girl diagrams every sentence carefully.
4. Many other girls diagram sentences neatly.
5. You should bend gently and solemnly over her bed.



“We buried him darkly at dead of night” is a sentence. ‘We’ is the subject; ‘buried’ is the predicate; ‘him’ is the object. ‘Buried’ is modified by ‘darkly’ an adverb and by the phrase, ‘at dead.’ ‘Dead’ is modified by ‘of night.’

Adverbs modify what three parts of speech? Adverbs of manner generally end in what syllable? A phrase modifies what part of speech? Name all the parts of speech.

“From whom can you have taken it” is a sentence. ‘You’ is the subject; ‘can have taken’ is the predicate; ‘it’ is the object. ‘Can have taken’ is modified by the phrase, ‘from whom,’ a proposition and its object.

Write six sentences and in each one let the predicate be modified by one or more adverbs.

Every sentence should be diagrammed on the blackboard at the beginning of each recitation. This will enable the pupils to correct the mistakes in analysis on their slates.

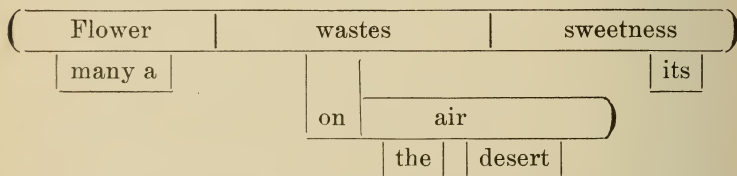
PREPOSITIONS—PHRASES.

Full many a gem of purest ray serene,
 The dark, unfathomed caves of ocean bear
 Full many a flower is born to blush unseen,
 And waste its sweetness on the desert air.

The preposition is that part of speech which combines with the noun or pronoun to form a phrase.

1. The caves of ocean bear many a gem.
2. Tennyson lived on the Isle of Wight.
3. The whale is hunted in the Atlantic Ocean.
4. That mountain stands on a throne of rocks.
5. The troops of Sheridan rallied at Winchester.

“Many a flower wastes its sweetness on the desert air” is a sentence. ‘Flower’ is the subject; ‘wastes’ is the predicate; ‘sweetness’ is the object. ‘Flower’ is modified by ‘many a’ an adjective; ‘wastes’ is modified by the phrase ‘on air.’ ‘On’ is the preposition and ‘air’ is its object. ‘Air’ is modified by ‘the’ and ‘desert’ two adjectives.



Have you learned how to ask those questions which show instantly the use of every word and every phrase in a sentence? If not, your teacher will generously spend the time of a recitation, at this place, in training you. They are in the appendix.

Write six sentences, each having at least one adverb and one phrase composed of a preposition and its object.

Can you diagram five sentences in seven minutes and do it neatly? If not, review the works on the six preceding pages.

PHRASES—Continued.

Few and short were the prayers we said,
 And we spoke not a word of sorrow:
 And we steadfastly gazed on the face of the dead,
 And we bitterly thought of the morrow.

(we	gazed
on	steadfastly face

“We steadfastly gazed on the face of the dead” is a sentence. ‘We’ is the subject; ‘gazed’ is the predicate. ‘Gazed’ is modified by ‘steadfastly’ an adverb and by the phrase, ‘on face,’ ‘on’ being the preposition and ‘face’ its object.

What is a preposition? A phrase? Do phrases modify nouns as well as verbs? Write three sentences in which the nouns and verbs are modified by phrases.

1. From whom did you get it?
2. To whom did you give it?
3. With whom has he divided it?
4. By whom can he secure it?
5. Between whom can they have shared it?

(He	can have given	it
to	whom	

“Who can he have given it to” is a sentence, interrogative. ‘He’ is the subject; ‘can have given’ is the predicate; ‘it’ is the object. ‘Can have given’ is modified by the phrase, ‘to who,’ a proposition and its object. ‘Who’ is in the objective case and should have the objective form, *whom*.

If any of the pupils fail to understand the meaning of the term, phrase, copula, adverb, preposition, or anything else in the work after having heard the definition and explanation seventeen times, show it to the whole class in a diagrammed sentence on the blackboard and explain it once more.

STEPPING STONES IN COMPOSITION.

We give below a list of the prepositions in common use. As a class exercise have the pupils make short, simple sentences in which each of these shall be used as part of a phrase modifier.

As preparation have each pupil write six sentences using six of these prepositions in phrase modifiers.

Aboard,	athwart,	ere,	till,
about,	before,	for,	to,
above,	behind,	from,	toward,
across,	below,	in,	towards,
after,	beneath,	into,	under,
against,	beside,	of,	underneath,
along,	besides,	on,	until,
amid,	between,	over,	unto,
amidst,	betwixt,	past,	up,
among,	beyond,	round,	upon,
amongst,	but,	since,	with,
around,	by,	through,	within,

The following are technical terms used in grammar. They should be treated as a lesson in spelling and reading until every member of the class becomes perfectly familiar with them.

1. Sentence, simple, compound, complex, declarative, interrogative, imperative.

2. Noun, pro-noun, verb, singular, plural, transitive, copulative, copula, adverb, time, place, case.

3. Adjective, descriptive, comparison, positive, comparative, superlative, preposition, object, phrase.

4. Subject, predicate, object, phrase modifier, clause modifier, punctuation, quotation.

PREPOSITIONS AND NOUNS.

“O, could I fly, I’d fly with thee !
 We’d make, on joyful wing,
 Our annual visit round the globe,
 Companions of the spring.”

In poetry and in many old books we find the old style of pronouns used. They are, thou, thy, thine, thee, ye, etc.

(We		would make		visit	
				our	annual
		with	wing		
		joyful			
		o’er		globe	
				the	

1. Who did you get it from?
2. Who did you give it to?
3. Who did he divide it with?

“Who did he divide it with” is a sentence, Interrogative. ‘He’ is the subject; ‘did divide’ is the predicate; ‘it’ is the object. ‘Did divide’ is modified by the phrase, ‘with who,’ a preposition and its object.

RULE: The object of a preposition is in the objective case and should have the objective form. Therefore the sentence should be: With whom did he divide it?

(He		did divide		it	
		with	whom		

What two changes were made in correcting this sentence? Name all the case forms of the pronoun, *who*. Correct and analyze the other sentences and write six sentences, all interrogative, using either *who*, *whose* or *whom* in each.

THE COPULATIVE VERB—To Be,

BE AM WAS IS ARE WERE BEEN.

- | | |
|---------------------------|------------------------------|
| 1. It is I. | 7. It is he. |
| 2. It was I. | 8. It was who? |
| 3. It was we. | 9. It was they. |
| 4. We were boys. | 10. They were men. |
| 5. It was he and she. | 11. It was he and I. |
| 6. He has been a soldier. | 12. They have been soldiers. |

The verb, *to be*, does not express action. It is never followed by an object like other verbs. Its different forms are, am, was, is, are, were, has been, have been, had been.

1. The Greeks were the cultured people of antiquity.
2. He is the newly elected president of France.
3. Augustus might have been a famous monarch.
4. The prophets had been the leaders of the people.

Chancellor	is	T	officer
the		the	highest
of England		of	kingdom

“The chancellor of England is the highest judicial officer of the kingdom” is a sentence. ‘Chancellor’ is the subject; ‘is’ is the copula; ‘officer’ is the predicate.

We find in this sentence a new meaning attached to the term, predicate. The action-word or verb has been called the predicate from the beginning of the work.

Friend	should have been	T	Counselor
--------	------------------	---	-----------

“His friend should have been his counselor” is a sentence. ‘Friend’ is the subject; ‘should have been’ is the copula; ‘counselor’ is the predicate.

COPULATIVE VERBS—Continued.

Oh! a wonderful stream is the river Time,
 As it runs through the realm of tears,
 With a faultless rhythm and a musical rhyme
 And a broader sweep and a surge sublime,
 As it blends with the ocean of years.

River		is	I	stream
the			a	wonderful

“A wonderful stream is the river Time” is a sentence. ‘River’ is the subject; ‘is’ is the copula; ‘stream’ is the predicate.

The noun following the copulative verb is called the predicate. The noun following other verbs is called the object.

1. Who is he that blows the horn?
2. What was it that struck him?
3. Who is it that tore my book?
4. Who are they that carried the banner?
5. Which is the book that you selected?

Who		is	I	he
-----	--	----	---	----

“Who is he” is a sentence. ‘Who’ is the subject; ‘is’ is the copula; ‘he’ is the predicate.

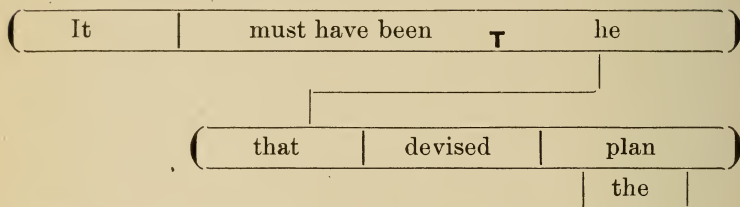
“That blows the horn” is a sentence. ‘That’ is the subject; ‘blows’ is the predicate; ‘horn’ is the object.

Is the predicate of a sentence a noun, a pronoun or a verb? Name all the different forms of the copulative verb, *to be*. A pronoun following the copulative verb is in what case?

Write seven sentences each having a different form of copulative verb. Let each be followed by the nominative form of some pronoun.

COMPLEX SENTENCES.

1. It was he that took your book.
2. It is I that saw you.
3. It was she that wanted us.
4. It must have been he that built that house.



“It must have been him that devised the plan” is a sentence, complex. ‘It must have been him’ is the first simple sentence of which ‘it’ is the subject; ‘must have been’ is the copula; ‘him’ is the predicate.

The analysis shows that ‘him’ is the predicate and the rule says that it should have the nominative form, *he*.

RULE: A pronoun used as the predicate of a sentence is in the nominative case and should have the nominative form.

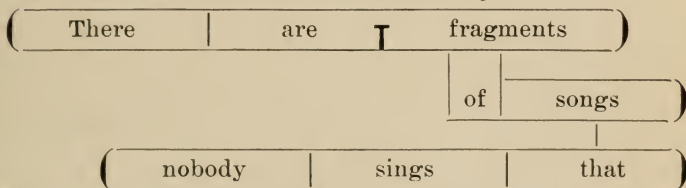
The predicate, ‘he’ in the first simple sentence is modified by the sentence, ‘that devised the plan’ of which, ‘that’ is the subject; ‘devised’ is the predicate; ‘plan’ is the object.

A complex sentence is composed of two or more simple sentences. A word in the principal sentences is modified by another sentence.

Write six complex sentences. Let the predicate in each first or principal sentence be a pronoun and let it be modified by a clause—another sentence.

COMPLEX SENTENCES—Continued.

5. There are fragments of songs that nobody sings,
 There are parts of an infant's prayer,
 There's a lute unswept and a harp without strings,
 There are broken vows and pieces of rings,
 And the garments our dead used to wear.
1. These are the troops that we met on the bridge.
 2. Those are the cadets that saluted them.
 3. They are heroes whom we honor.
 4. It was Napoleon that commanded at Waterloo.
 5. It was the allies that won the victory.



“There are fragments of songs that nobody sings” is sentence, complex. ‘There’ is the subject of the first or principal sentence; ‘are’ is the copula; ‘fragments’ is the predicate and is modified by the phrase, ‘of songs.’ ‘Nobody’ is the subject of the second or modifying sentence; ‘sings’ is the predicate; ‘that’ is the object.

In the analysis of this sentence, is the term, predicate, applied to a verb, noun or pronoun? Have you memorized all the case forms of all the pronouns? Have you observed that many adjectives, and such words as *there* and *it* are sometimes used as the subjects of sentences?

Copulative verbs: Am, was, is, are, were, have been, has been, had been.

Reduce everything to an object lesson. Never ask, What is an adverb, a preposition, an adjective, until you have the adverb, the preposition or adjective in a sentence diagrammed on the blackboard where you can point to it.

SINGULAR AND PLURAL FORMS.

SINGULAR.

1. He is.
2. He was.
3. The blade cuts.
4. A flower blooms.

PLURAL.

5. They are.
6. They were.
7. The blades cut.
8. The flowers bloom.

Examine these sentences and make a rule for the formation of plural *nouns* and another rule for the formation of plural *verbs*. Plural nouns end in what letter?

1. It looks well on the wall.
2. They look well in the drawing room.
3. He works in the shop on Monday.
4. They work in the fields during the summer-

Form			ends		
the		singular			
	of	verbs	in	letter	what

“The singular form of verbs end in what letter” is a sentence, interrogative, simple. ‘Form’ is the subject; ‘end’ is the predicate.

The analysis points out the fact that the verb, ‘end,’ has for its subject the singular noun, ‘form’ therefore it should have the singular form, *ends*.

RULE: A verb must agree with its subject in number.

Write six sentences using in each a plural subject modified by a phrase and four sentences with singular subjects, each modified by an adjective and a phrase.

The instructor should continually ask such questions as these during the recitation: What part of speech is the word, form? letters? in? singular? etc. What part of speech is the subject? the predicate? etc.? If the pupil fails to answer promptly the instructor should answer and explain without delay.

LANGUAGE AND LITERATURE.

THIS, THAT, KIND, SORT.

SINGULAR.

1. This boy near me.
2. That boy over there.
3. This kind of cloth.
4. That kind of cloth.
5. This sort of powder.
6. That sort of powder.

PLURAL.

7. These boys near me.
8. Those boys over there.
9. These kinds of goods.
10. Those kinds of goods.
11. These sorts of powders.
12. Those sorts of powders.

The adjectives, *this* and *that* are singular. They have the plurals, *these* and *those*.

We use *this* and *these* when speaking of things near us; *that* and *those* when speaking of things away from us.

“Do you not like ~~these~~ sort of people” is a sentence; interrogative; simple. ‘You’ is the subject; ‘do like’ is the predicate; ‘sort’ is the object. ‘Sort’ is modified by the phrase, ‘of people’ and by ‘those’ an adjective.

You	do like	sort
	not	
		that of people

~~these~~

‘These’ modifies the singular noun, ‘sort,’ and it should have the singular form, *that*.

What point do we find at the end of a question? Name all the forms of the copulative verb. Decline the pronouns, who, he, she, it. What parts of speech may be used as the predicates of sentences?

Write six sentences using in each, either *kind* or *sort* and have it modified by a phrase.

What part of speech is, do like? people? not? sort? that? of? the subject? the object? the predicate?

EACH, EVERY, EITHER, NEITHER.

1. Each of us will contribute a trifle.
2. Neither of them will refuse.
3. Either of the contracts will satisfy us.
4. Neither of the fleets sails this week.
5. Every one of the girls reads well.

“Neither of the boys ~~read~~-very well” is a sentence; declarative; simple. ‘Neither’ is the subject; ‘read’ is the predicate. ‘Neither’ is modified by the phrase, ‘of boys,’ ‘~~read~~’ is modified by ‘well,’ an adverb; ‘well’ is modified by ‘very,’ another adverb.

(Neither reads)
 of boys) ~~read~~ well
 the very

The verb, 'read' has the singular subject, 'neither,' it should, therefore, have the singular form, *reads*.

The adjectives, *this, that, each, every, either, neither, etc.*, are often used as nouns. They are singular, and when used as the subjects of sentences they should be followed by the singular form of verbs.

What is an adverb? Can one adverb modify another? Name all the forms of the copulative verb, *to be*. What case forms of pronouns follow copulative verbs? How many simple sentences in a complex sentence? Can a sentence be used as a modifier of a word?

What part of speech is the subject of a sentence? The predicate? The object of a transitive verb? The object of a preposition? Name all the parts of speech. What part of speech is neither? read? that? very? well?

COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES.

Adjectives have three forms, or three degrees of comparison. The positive is the simple form.

The comparative form is used when we are comparing two persons or two things. The superlative is used when we are comparing three, four or more persons or things.

POSITIVE.	COMPARATIVE.	SUPERLATIVE.
bright	brighter	brightest
happy	happier	happiest
able	abler	ablest
mellow	mellower	mellowest
genteel	genteeler	genteelest

1. Walter is a bright boy for his age.
2. Howard is a brighter boy than John.
3. Charles was the brightest boy in the class.

“The day before yesterday must have been the warmest of the two” is a sentence; declarative; simple. ‘Day’ is the subject; ‘must have been’ is the copula; ‘day’ understood, is the predicate. The subject, ‘day,’ is modified by ‘the’ an adjective and by the phrase, ‘before yesterday.’ The predicate, ‘day’ is modified by ‘the’ and ‘warmest,’ two adjectives and by the phrase, ‘of days.’

Day		must have been		day	
	the				warmer
before	yesterday			of	days
				the	two

‘Warmest’ is an adjective used in comparing two things, it should, therefore, have the comparative form, *warmer*.

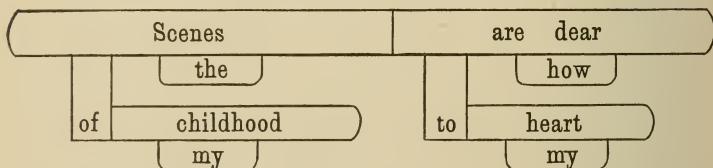
After you have learned to compare the adjectives above, compare good, bad, wise, old, small, long, high, hard, soft. Your instructor will aid you in this.

METHOD OF INVESTIGATION.

The reasoning process which we use while studying, drawing conclusions and writing the analysis of a sentence in the form of a diagram, either on the board during the recitation or on slates while preparing the lessons, is identical with that which we use in solving mathematical problems and requires quite as much care and attention.

The formulated method of asking questions which we here present, when used with care, will aid very much in the work. The questions are designed to show clearly the use and force of each and every word in the sentence.

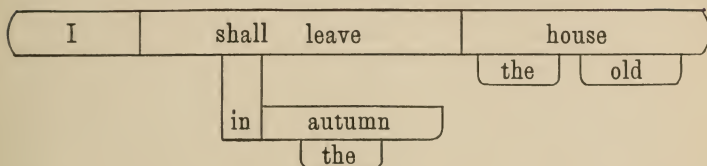
How dear to my heart are the scenes of my childhood,
 When fond recollection presents them to view!
 The orchard, the meadow, the deep tangled wild wood,
 And every loved spot that my infancy knew!



"How dear to my heart are the scenes of my childhood" is a sentence, exclamatory, simple. Name the three words that make the complete statement. *Scenes are dear.* About what is something said, what is the subject? *Scenes.* What scenes? *Of childhood.* What childhood? *My childhood,* What is said about scenes, what is the predicate? *Are dear* Are dear in what way? *Are dear to heart.* What heart? *My heart.*

Can you now analyze the sentences in this First Part rapidly and correctly? If so, procure the Second Part.

I shall leave the old house in the autumn,
 To traverse its threshold no more;
 Ah! how shall I sigh for the dear ones
 That meet me each morn at the door;



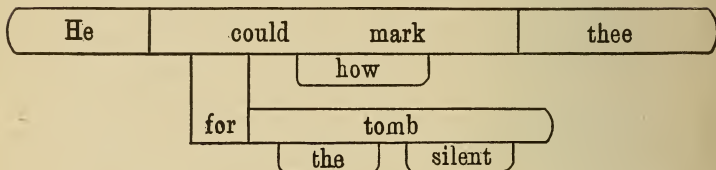
“I shall leave the old house in the autumn” is a sentence, declarative, simple. Read the three words—subject, predicate, object—that tell the whole story. *I shall leave house.* What is the subject, the actor? *I.* What is the action-word, the verb, the predicate? *Shall leave.* Leave what, what is the object? *House.* What house? *The house.* What kind of house? *Old house.* Shall leave when? *In autumn.*



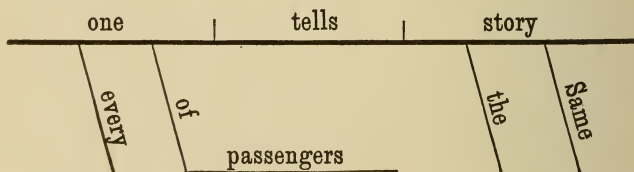
“Whom do you think I met in Paris” is a sentence, interrogative, complex. What word expresses the action, what is the verb, the predicate? *Do think.* Who or what is the actor, the subject? *You.* What is the object, you do think what? The clause, ‘I met whom in Paris.’ Read the three words that make the complete statement—subject, predicate, object. *I met whom.* Met where? *In Paris.*

Ability to ask questions, which show the force and use of words in sentences, is necessary to success in the study of language. That ability is acquired by careful study of the paragraphs here devoted to that subject. They should, at first, be read frequently during recitation—three times a week. They should be kept, for convenient reference, before the pupil while he is preparing his work—analyzing the sentences on slates or paper.

“Alas! my noble boy, that thou shouldst die!
 Thou who wert made so beautifully fair!
 That death should settle in thy glorious eye,
 And leave his stillness in thy clustering hair.
 How could he mark thee for the silent tomb—
 My proud boy, Absolum!



“How could he mark thee for the silent tomb” is a sentence, exclamatory, simple. Name the three words—subject, predicate, object—that make the complete statement. *He could mark thee.* What is the subject, the actor? *He.* What is the action-word, the verb, the predicate? *Could mark.* Could mark what, what is the object? *Thee.* Could mark how, when, where, for what purpose? *For tomb.* What tomb? *The tomb.* What kind of tomb? *Silent tomb.*

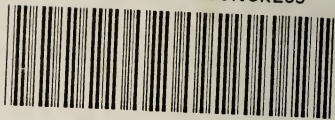


“Every one of the passengers tells the same story” is a sentence, declarative, simple. Read the three words that make the complete statement—subject, predicate, object. *One tells story.* Who or what is the actor, the person who does something, the subject? *One.* What does ‘one’ do, what is the action-word, the verb, the predicate? *Tells.* What is the object, tells what? *Story.* What story? *The story, same story.* What ‘one’ tells? *Every one, one of passengers.*





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